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Thomas M. Mulry

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

Charities and Correction

AT THE

Thirty-fifth Annual Session held in the City of Richmond, Va., May 6th to 13th 1908

EDITED BY

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

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PREFACE

The Thirty-fifth Conference was marked by several distinctive features. For the first time the general sessions were all at the evening meetings, the mornings being given up to section meetings and the afternoons left free. The natural result followed that the discussion was chiefly at the section meetings and hence is but partially reported. The more important papers read at sections are included with the report of each committee in the same type as other papers.

The number of section meetings was larger than usual and the attendance was good at all of them. The arrangement of meeting places facilitated the work of each committee in holding section meetings.

The Committee on Statistics held meetings that were largely attended, as did that on Press and Publicity, which appeared for the first time on the program.

The local interest evinced by the citizens of Richmond was equal to that at any previous meeting of the Conference, but the attendance from the South, outside of Richmond, although better than at any previous Conference, was somewhat disappointing, and proved that successful methods of advertising have still to be developed.

The Thirty-Sixth Conference will be held in Buffalo, N. Y., June 9 to 16, 1909; Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, of Washington, D. C., who is the executive head of the National Red Cross, being president.

A. J.

Fort Wayne, Ind., November 1, 1908.

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Proceedings of the 35th National Conference of Charities and Correction

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President's Address

BY THOMAS M. MULRY, PRESIDENT OF THE SUPERIOR COUNCIL ST. VINCENT DE PAUL, NEW YORK

Progress is the keynote dominating this age of enlightenment, and, on every hand throughout this broad land of liberty so singularly blessed by Providence, are to be seen evidences marking accurately the rapid and giant strides made in science and industry. It is an age of universal peace and prosperity, in which man's best efforts are devoted to the advancement of every conceivable activity.

Philanthropy has kept pace in this march of progress, and the noble men and women engaged in the grand work for the betterment and uplifting of the poor have kept constantly to the front, keeping step and marking time with their fellow citizens devoted to the advancement of other interests. "Onward!" is the enchanting watchword guiding them at all times. Onward, and ever onward will it be until the noble object they have in view has been attained. As the years succeed each other, one is deeply impressed with the marvelous advance made in the various fields of charitable endeavor. This advance is most marked in the annual meetings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction has been a great leveler. It has done wonders for the cause. Cast your glance over the list of its members and you will have some slight perception of what it has accomplished in the line of unifying and solidifying the efforts of the charity worker. Thirty-five years ago, he would have been considered rash indeed who would have ventured to predict a bright future for the National Conference of Charities and Correction, then in its infancy. "In unity there is strength" was the idea, without doubt, uppermost in the minds of those who planned and inaugurated this National Conference. Founded primarily with the laudable purpose of bringing together people of all shades

of opinions and methods when applied to charity, the National Conference of Charities and Correction has succeeded in evolving and perfecting a united body working for the common good of all.

The line of work it laid out, the objects it had in view, seemed almost impossible of fulfillment. On every side glaring abuses existed; many institutions, both public and private, were being managed not only with shocking laxity, but tolerated the existence of evil conditions whose mere recital would be most repulsive. People apparently were so closely wedded to cramped notions relative to the treatment of destitution and crime that co-operation, or even the possibility of meeting on a common ground to peaceably discuss the subject, appeared absolutely hopeless. In fact, each individual was so bound up in his own ideas, in his own system, in the working-out of his own pet schemes, that it would appear that nothing short of a miracle would ever succeed in persuading him to unite with others and bury self in an effort to arrive at some proper solution of the many vexed problems. In addition, religious prejudices played a large part in making the conditions even more complicated. Yet, the almost impossible task has been successfully completed and that which, in the early days, seemed impracticable and impossible of fulfillment, has been accomplished. The miracle has been worked and co-operation, hearty and universal, is now a living truth, an accomplished fact, a shining example of true, brotherly love, a beautiful instance of self-sacrifice and a glowing tribute to the sagacity of those responsible for the creation of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Look about you this evening; cast your eyes over this large gathering made up of representatives of every phase of charitable and correctional work, and you will undoubtedly bear willing testimony that co-operation in charity work is possible and that a debt of gratitude is due the founders of this grand and good work. They builded better than they knew, and their labors have not been in vain.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction has become a wonderful power for good. Well may it be likened to the tuning-fork by which all charity work is attuned. The influence of these annual meetings has been and ever will be

felt in all parts of the country; public opinion has been aroused and kept alive until abuses have been corrected, and improved conditions forced upon the management of public institutions. In a word, to the interest aroused by this National Conference must be attributed the credit for many of the advances made in every form of charitable and correctional work.

Though progress has been made, there yet remains much more to be accomplished. With the history of the past before us, however; with the cry of "Onward!" always ringing in our ears, the future is big with hope. It will but serve to stir us on to emulate the example of those who have labored before us in the vineyard of charity.

To many it may seem somewhat difficult to understand how it is that the National Conference of Charities and Correction wields such influence in the field of charity. It has no power of direction; no legislative body has conferred upon it the authority to create or destroy; yet, it has wielded a tremendous influence in the battle for the betterment of social conditions. To those who have followed its course, who have attended the sessions of its annual meetings, it is well known that its influence is a moral one, appealing to all that is elevating in man and woman. By the exercise of this influence, coupled with that spirit of fair play, so characteristic of the American people as a whole, the National Conference of Charities and Correction has convinced most thoroughly the citizens of our country that it stands for all that is good, and all that is just, and that its powerful influence is exerted solely for the social uplifting of the unfortunate.

Does not this very meeting furnish a most edifying and inspiring sight? It is made up of people of a wide variety of belief, religious and charitable, coming from all sections of the country, sinking their personal differences and banding themselves together to work harmoniously to devise ways and means best fitted to ameliorate the condition of the destitute, the sick, the unfortunate and the criminal. Time was (and it seems but yesterday) when it not infrequently happened that people, working under charity's emblem, would bitterly attack the principles and methods of their neighbor, endeavoring to destroy each other's works, and, not unlike Sampson of old, willing

to tear down the temple of charity, despite the fact that, in such destruction, every good work might perish. Conditions happily are now changed. A feeling of joy and confidence comes over one to-night, and the hope rises within us that, at last, we have reached common ground in charitable endeavor. We have got to the point where we see the advantages of getting together and uniting our efforts for the accomplishment of good.

Upon you, ladies and gentlemen, members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, is placed a grave responsibility. Upon you does the future of this grand organization depend. The spirit of co-operation is abroad. Men and women now vie with each other in an endeavor to cement the good feeling existing between sister societies. See to it religiously that this spirit is continued and fostered. Let co-operation be generous, sincere, earnest and active. Encourage every good effort, always remembering that there is some good in every charitable work, and that the aim of every member of the National Conference of Charities and Correction should be to build up—not to destroy.

If charity has any meaning, it should teach us to be tolerant and considerate, to respect the opinions of those who may differ with us in the prosecution of any work of charity. Therefore, remembering this, let it be our aim and ambition when viewing the work of others, to take all that is good, eliminating that which is bad, and evolve therefrom a magnificent whole which will be a source of benefit to those for whose benefit we are gathered here to-night. Imbued with such ideas, charity workers must of necessity work together and, working together side by side, accomplish much for the good of the poor and their country.

Present-day conditions point out most forcibly the need of unity of purpose on our part. The spirit of unrest has gone abroad; we feel it in the air, the evidences of its presence are to be seen about us. The extremes of wealth and poverty are made the subject of every-day discussion, and already the spirit of anarchy, so repugnant to American institutions, is striving mightily to gain a foot-hold. Not alone among the poor are these conditions to be found; men of wealth, educa-

tion and intelligence are numbered to-day among the apostles of socialism, and their teachings, though disguised under most seductive forms, come perilously close to anarchy. Herein lies a great danger to our country, and herein likewise a great duty confronts us. These men, earnest, intelligent and aggressive, strive to exert an influence over the poor which should not be estimated too lightly. With them poverty is looked upon as little less than a crime, while some go so far as to call it a crime to be poor. By their teachings they create wants that never can be supplied, and rob the poor even of their religious training. What is to become of us if those who suffer privation, sickness and misery of every description feel that there is no future for them, no incentive to bear patiently the heavy burden placed upon their shoulders? It makes no difference what is the cause of their poverty; the result is the same.

Ladies and gentlemen: If you take the belief of God out of the hearts of the poor people—the belief in a hereafter—you rob them of every vestige of hope; you make them desperate; you create chaos and engender in them a bitterness of heart which must eventually terminate in an utter disregard of all law and order. Do not rob the poor man of his best heritage. Do not take away from him that consolation which can come only from religion and an entire dependence upon God. His position may be most abject; his outlook for the future dark and dreary; but you will never better his condition by taking away from him the comforting and softening influence of religion. I appeal to every God-fearing man and woman here to give serious thought to the subject and to do everything possible to stem the tide that threatens to overwhelm us.

What Ozanam said in 1836, in describing the conditions then existing in France, may well be quoted here. "A struggle is preparing," he says, "between the classes, and it threatens to be terrible; let us precipitate ourselves between these hostile ranks so as to deaden the shock, if we cannot prevent it. The question which agitates the world to-day is not a question of political forms, but a social question. If it be the struggle of those who have nothing, with those who have too much; if it be the violent shock of opulence and poverty which is making the ground tremble under our feet, our duty, as Christians, is to

throw ourselves between these irreconcilable enemies and to induce one side to give, in order to fulfill the law, and the other to receive as a benefit; to make one side cease to exact, and the other to refuse. * * * The first duty of Christians now is not to be frightened, and the second is not to frighten others."

I have the honor of being a member of an organization which believes that the influence of religion is most essential in all charitable work: I refer to the Society of St. Vincent de Paul. The aim of its members is to bring the poor to practical religious living, and when they succeed in doing this they know that they have placed them on the high road to self-support and rehabilitation.

The Society of St. Vincent de Paul is founded on principles as old as the church to which its members pay unhesitating obedience. They look back with pride to the magnificent work accomplished in the seventeenth century by the great St. Vincent de Paul on the same lines and the same methods which the majority of charity workers follow to-day. Personal service is the keynote to success among the poor, and if those whom God has blessed with wealth were to enter the homes of the poor, and give them not only material help but likewise the alms of good advice, much would be done toward reconciling the poor to their condition. Hear what Frederic Ozanam, the founder of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, has to say on the subject:

"Help is humiliating when it appeals to men from below, taking heed of their material wants only, paying no attention but to those of the flesh, to the cry of hunger and cold, to what excites pity, to what one succors even in the beasts. It humiliates when there is no reciprocity, when you give the poor man nothing but bread, or clothes, or a bundle of straw—what, in fact, there is no likelihood of his ever giving you in return. * * * But it honors when it appeals to him from above, when it occupies itself with his soul, his religious, moral and political education, with all that emancipates him from his passions and from a portion of his wants, with those things that make him free and may make him great. Help honors when, to the bread that nourishes, it adds the visit that consoles, the advice that enlightens, the friendly shake of the hand that lifts up the sinking courage; when it treats the poor man with

respect, not only as an equal but as a superior, since he is suffering what perhaps we are incapable of suffering; since he is the messenger of God to us, sent to prove our justice and our charity and to save us by our works. * * * In our eyes, the man who suffers serves God and consequently serves society like him who prays. He performs a ministry of expiation, a sacrifice whose merits rebound on us, and we trust less for our safety to the lightning-conductor above our house-tops than to the prayer of the poor woman and her little children who are sleeping on a truss of straw in the garret under our roof. And let no one say that, in treating poverty as a priesthood, we aim at perpetuating it. The same authority which tells us that we shall always have the poor amongst us is the same that commands to do all we can that there may cease to be any. * * * When you dread so much to lay an obligation on him who accepts your alms, I fear it is because you have never experienced the obligation it confers upon him who gives. Those who know the road to the poor man's house, whose feet have swept the dust from his stairs, never knock at his door without a sentiment of respect. They know that, in accepting bread from their hand as he takes the light from God, the poor man honors them; they know that the theater and every other place of amusement can be paid for, but that nothing in this world can pay for two tears of joy in the eyes of a poor mother, nor the grasp of an honest man's hand when one has enabled him to wait until he gets work."

These are the principles; these are the sentiments of one of the world's most famous charity workers. Are they not worthy of emulation? Ponder well these thoughts and let them be your guide in your work among the poor. Charity, conducted on such lines, becomes a powerful factor in the uplifting of our less fortunate brother.

Let us hope that the Conference, now about to begin its deliberations, will be productive of much good results both for ourselves and the dependents entrusted to our care. Let us strive to do everything in our power to make this Thirty-fifth National Conference of Charities and Correction the most successful in the history of the organization.

The good people of Richmond have extended to us a most

cordial welcome. For the past few days I have personally experienced the true meaning of that famous "southern hospitality" which at once makes the stranger feel perfectly at home. Let us show our hosts that their hospitable, kindly spirit is contagious, which may be done best by exercising at all times the charity we preach, and bearing patiently with each other's theories, even though they differ from our own. Let the meetings be emphasized by an absence of all rancor because only in this way will they be productive of good. "With charity for all; with malice toward none," extending the right hand of fellowship to every worthy man or woman who strives with us to uplift and to succor the needy and unfortunate, let us build up our organization to still greater heights of power and influence in our common country until the wealthy citizen fully understands that his wealth is a trust given him by Divine Providence for the benefit, not only of himself and his kin, but also for those less fortunate than he; cementing everywhere the bonds that bind together the various classes of our national citizenship, conferring upon all the common blessings of that peace which cometh only from doing the will of the God of charity.

The Conference Sermon

BY REV. M. ASHBY JONES, D. D., OF COLUMBUS, GA.

To be linked, in even some simple way, with the spirit and work of this great gathering is a privilege to be prized. And if in return for the honor you do me, I can contribute any increased emphasis to the splendid impulse which stirs you, my mission to you shall have been accomplished. One can not live within the atmosphere of this Conference for even a day without feeling his heart beat faster with human sympathy and human hope. Here better than any other vantage ground on which I have ever stood, can be heard every tone of the human plaint. The inarticulate cry of the half-nourished babe, the moan of the victim of disease, the muttered menace of poverty, the petition of the imprisoned soul of the defective, the challenge of the drug and drink devil-possessed, the sullen protest of the criminal, the plea of the overworked mother, and the ceaseless call of the unprotected child, all mingle their minor tones in a medley of appeal whose pathos is irresistible. But here too, above all, can be heard the answering cry, clear and courageous, of help and hope. As I have listened day after day to the stories of these heroic men and women, representing every phase of sympathetic service, there has come to me over and over again that scene enacted in Palestine in the long ago. One John was imprisoned. Worn well-nigh to despair with the long waiting—nervously skeptical about the lagging footsteps of the coming reform which he had predicted—he sends two disciples to this Jesus whom he had proclaimed, to ask, "Art thou He that should come, or do we look for another?" And Jesus with sympathetic patience replies, "Go tell John what ye have seen and heard; the blind receive their sight, the lame walk, the lepers are cleansed, the deaf hear, the dead are raised up, the poor have good tidings preached to them." Men and women, for some days I have been looking into the faces of these workers

here, have caught the glow of the spirit which nerves, and have glimpsed the great tasks which claim their efforts. I have been asking myself a question. They say that this same Jesus is to come again. But in the presence of the spirit and service here represented, I ask, is not this He that was to come? Since of all the topics which appear upon this inspiring program, the one assigned your speaker by the indulgence of the committee, is alone called a sermon, then tradition demands that there must be a text. Let this be my text—a paraphrase of the question of John—"Is not this He that was to come?" And I shall ask you to follow me while I make this earnest inquiry into the work represented by this Conference. In all its splendid variety, does it not reveal the presence of Jesus of Nazareth?

Is not that presence recognized in the tremendous emphasis here laid upon the value of a human life? This too was the key-note of his teaching. Indeed, this was the motive of his mission, the explanation of his life, and the only standpoint from which we can understand his life. The cross itself, whatever else may be said about it, was the climax of his argument that the priceless thing in all the universe is a human life. He talked about *things* in terms of humanity, using them as but meagre measures to arrive at the value of human life. The lilies of the field, or the birds of the air were mentioned simply to illustrate something of this worth. Leaven expressed its permeating power, and seed showed its marvelous capacity for growth. Wherever he touched the world of *things* it was but to throw into clear relief the significance of the world of *thought.* It has been said that Jesus discounted wealth, was the friend of poverty, and expressed his disapprobation of the accumulation of property. But his sayings on this subject can not be understood until we see that He was talking about wealth in comparison with the value of life. "All these things your Heavenly Father knoweth ye have need of," said he with emphasis, but his point is clear and unmistakable, "these things are to be added to life, and not life to these things." Let it forever be understood, men and women, that Jesus' severe condemnation of riches was meted out when riches was to be the purchase price of a person. Then he threw down the gauntlet to the whole material universe. "What will it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his life?"

From this standpoint he was equally severe in his condemnation of religion. Whenever the issue is between a religious observance and the welfare of a human life, let the religious observance perish. Which is better, he asked one day with stinging satire, to keep a religious law or do good to a man? The religious system is made for man, and not man for the religious system, is the teaching of Jesus. Well may we pause here and place an emphasis upon that great principle. Whenever the spire of church or temple rears itself between men and the sunlight of God's smile, to cast its shadow upon human hearts, its divine mission is at an end, and it had better be razed to the ground.

However, let it be quickly added that this value which Jesus placed upon human life is a potential value—not what a man ever saw with such undimmed vision the depth of degradation to which a human life may descend. But no man ever saw with such clear faith the height to which that life might attain. Beneath the debris of protested promises and the wreckage of broken resolutions, Jesus saw, traced with the Divine finger, the outline of the life that could be. He viewed man as incomplete. "Something is lost, and I must find it," was the bugle call of his soul which summoned him to his splendid mission. And I interpret that this is the very breath and genius of this Conference. It is your gospel too, that to gain a whole world will not compensate for the debasement of one personality. Neither is your protest against wealth, save when wealth becomes the purchase price of human hope and human opportunity. And you have no war with existing institutions, save when these institutions cast their sombre shadows across the lives of humanity. You too find that human life is incomplete. The value of the delinquent, the dependent, and the defective, is to be found not in what he is, but in what he may be. And the pathos of his appeal to us to-day is that "something lost," and the urge to our conscience, constant in its call, is, "I must find it."

But to find it takes the faith of a Jesus. There must be that clear vision of the man that may be. Without that faith this Conference would be impossible. To look fairly into the face of human weakness and wickedness, with all its horrid reality of what is, and have no vision of what may be is deaden-

ing to every effort. One can not work with despair in his heart and defeat in his blood. I do believe that before any man can become a helper of his fellow man, he must in some way dream Jacob's dream. He too must see within his soul a ladder tiptoeing from earth to heaven, and the commerce of ascending and descending angels. And he must understand the lesson of the ladder, that that which links earth and heaven is the length of a man. Ascending angels are the aspirations of a human life, and descending angels are the inspirations of the Divine life. And any man may be that link.

But what is that potential value which Jesus sees in a human life? I answer at once. It is a social value. It is the value of a man revealed in the life of another man. The constant theme of his preaching was the coming of the Kingdom of God on earth. That Kingdom was to be an ideal social condition on earth. In it man is to be of the first value, and ministering to the welfare of man its highest service. It is to be a society of brothers, and its life shall be an expression of mutual love. The final test of the worth of a man is to be determined by his fulfillment of that relationship. Religious shibboleths can not be substituted for service. Many will say, "Lord, Lord," only to hear "I never knew you." Nor will religious observances take its place. For even if one is at the foot of the altar with his gift all ready for the sacrifice, and remember he has failed in an obligation to his brother, let him leave his gift at the altar and go right the wrong he has committed, or meet the duty he has shirked. No altar, teaches Jesus, must stand between two men. Indeed the human heart is the altar upon which we must make our most acceptable offerings unto God. But Jesus goes even further. Service to man is identified with service to God. In that parable setting forth the standard for the final judgment, he says that if a man owes anything to God and will pay it to a man, it will be counted as paid to God. "Inasmuch as ye did it unto one of the least of these my brethren ye did it unto me." And on the other hand a debt to a fellow man is a debt to God. "Inasmuch as ye did not unto one of these my brethren ye did it not unto me." In a word the character of a man in the Kingdom of Heaven is judged by the manner in which a man meets the requirements of his relation to his fellow man.

A study of this teaching of Jesus shows it to be not only reasonable but inevitable. Try as you may and you will find it impossible to state the worth of a man in any other terms than those of his relations to other men. Indeed it is well-nigh impossible to speak of him at all save in terms which state or imply human relations. No definition of a man which does not at least imply the existence of another person has any significance whatever. A man absolutely alone and unrelated to any other person in the universe, is unthinkable. He lives in our thought as father, son, neighbor, citizen, debtor or creditor, and his personality grows as these relationships multiply. And according as he fails or fulfils the obligations which accompany these relations, we rightly appraise his value. The distinction between private and social virtues is a fictitious one. In their last analysis, all virtues are social. They imply either the fulfilment or the desire to fulfill some duty to another. Obedience, justice, honesty, courtesy, kindness, love, would have no meaning save for the thought of more than one person. So every incomplete man is incomplete socially. He has failed to properly relate himself to other men. Every sin is a social sin; the failure to meet an obligation to another. That lost man we are seeking is lost to society—to the family, the community, the State. So the mission of Jesus, and the work of this Conference are identical. The task, in its last analysis, is one of adjustment. The incomplete man is to be completed by properly relating him to other men. He can not live to himself, for that would mean that he must die to his real self. Indeed to the extent he lives alone he fails in being a man. Alone he is but a prophesy which must be fulfilled in others. He must find himself in others. His destiny is social. He is predestined to be conformed unto the image of the Son of Man, who throbbed with the consciousness of universal brotherhood.

It seems to me also, my friends, we not only find, in this Conference, the mission but the method of Jesus. How shall a man be brought into the right relation with his fellows? Jesus' first anxiety seemed ever to be to arouse a man to a consciousness of his own worth. No man ever had such faith in the possibility of human life, and no one ever strove so earnestly to elicit that same faith in men. The man must believe in himself. To prove the academic theory of the brotherhood of man, is not

sufficient. The task is not to prove something, but to create something. To create the consciousness of who he is, and thus of what he may become. That was a tremendous figure of speech which Jesus used in his conversation with Nicodemus that night. Before you can enter this ideal social state, this Kingdom of Heaven, "ye must be born anew." There is life before birth, but no conscious life. So there is brotherhood before there is consciousness of this relation. Think of a man who has all his life viewed other men as employers, hands, customers, or voters, and has dealt with them from this standpoint. Now through some experience, I care not what it is, they come to live in his consciousness as brothers. There is no other phrase which will express this experience, but that he has been born again. He is a new creation and has entered into a new world. For we must emphasize it until it becomes an axiom of our reasoning, that man lives where he thinks. He is what he thinks. His world is circled by the circumference of his consciousness. To him all that is without is as if it were not. Only that which is within is real. The problem then is not one of transportation, but of transformation. To carry a man from some East Side to a Fifth avenue, or from an earth to a heaven beyond the stars is of little value. If you haven't changed the man within, you haven't changed the man. It is what is within, and not what is without that really counts. That the two bear a vital relation must be constantly remembered. But changing one's physical environment must never be the end, only a means toward the end. The end is that the man shall become a conscious participator in the world of privileges and responsibilities around him. This is to enter the Kingdom, and to do this, in some way, he must get born again. So much of physical environment as is an obstacle to the growth of that consciousness must be removed, and such things as will be conducive to its growth added. Let it be remembered, we can put nothing into a man, but only elicit and develop that which is already sleeping within him. To that end let us remove the abnormal growth upon the skull, or the abnormal growth upon the street. And whether it be the planting of a flower garden or a kindergarten, let us beckon with winsome beauty to the half awakened spirit to come out into a larger world. Come! and we will give you life, and give it more abundantly.

Now, my friends, I would not have you view society itself as some perfect organism needing only the adjustment of some individuals to its unity. Society too, is incomplete. It is incomplete so long as there is one incomplete individual. Just as the individual must find himself in society, so must society find itself in the individual. Society also must have its new birth, coming into consciousness of its kinship to every man. Not in the greatest good to the greatest number shall it realize its destiny, but in service to the least of its brethren shall it find its own highest welfare. To reach this ideal it must throw its protecting arms around the weak and helpless of every description, while it threatens with the depth of the sea every form of greedy individualism which would place stumbling blocks in the pathway of its children in their progress toward the light. The dawn of that day is already kissing the night into morning. The smile of that face is making bright the horizon of to-morrow. Its prophesy is the prayer in myriad earnest hearts, "thy Kingdom come, thy will be done on earth."

In the prosecution of our task we must be careful not to identify our principle with any form of government or any code of conduct, no matter how earnestly we may seek to realize it through any of these forms. Society is greater than government, and circles all conduct. Society is a common consciousness, and our ideal society the consciousness of universal kinship. Where are we to look for this social consciousness which is to make a universal brotherhood? I am not here, my friends, to defend any technical definition of the person of Jesus, whatever I might do at some other time, but is it not a supreme significance that he who, of all men, was so perfectly conscious of his brotherhood to all men, was so absolutely sure of his sonship to God? Is there not a vital connection between "Our Father who art in heaven," and, "thy Kingdom come, thy will be done on earth?" There is a tremendous "cash value" in a prayer on the mountain side when the petitioner is welcomed by the multitude in the valley, the lame leap and the paralytics praise.

The consciousness of who I am determines for me who you are, and thus my attitude toward you. It was a primary instinct which dictated the primary question in our catechisms, "Who made you?" The answer was, "God." But the answer did not go far enough. "What God," is the crucial question. Harnack

truly interprets, "The man who can say 'My Father' to the Being who made heaven and earth, is thereby raised above heaven and earth, and himself has a value which is greater than all the fabric of the world." If consciousness of sonship to God will produce a Jesus, is not that consciousness the supreme need of men, and that revelation the supreme revelation which has been made to men?

But practical workers will ask, how is that revelation to be made to men? I ask in reply, how *was* it made to men? How did that which we call civilization come to know God not as avenger, but as Father? It was this Jesus of Nazareth who made a two fold revelation to the world. In his life he revealed the Divine definition of a man, and in doing so he became the human definition of God. That divine definition of manhood was, one who lived his absolute assurance of sonship to God. But the very consciousness of that love of the Father within him shed its radiant smile into the lives of men, and they came to know the Father because they knew the Son. Men first became conscious of kinship to Jesus, and then of their kinship to the Father within him. Truly he was "the Way" to God. Is not this to be our method also? I do not ask you to be preachers, to sign my creed, submit to my ordinances, or express yourselves in my vocabulary. But go live that sonship of yours into life, and with the throb of your brother love, will go the revelation of your Father's presence. Men shall come to know your Father because they know his son. Every man carries his God with him, whether he will or not. He works for that which he worships, and that which he worships, be it true or false, gets itself worked out into his life. When he goes to do the work of his God, lo! he is with him even unto the end of his task. He shines in the expression of the face, thrills in the nerves of the touch, and vibrates in the tones of the voice. It is not the man who speaks the words, or doeth the works, but his God within him. I would not discount the dignity of this great occasion, nor mar the splendid spirit of this Conference by one insincere word, but men and women, better than any courageous words I have heard you speak, than any heroic story I have heard you tell, has been the ineffable brightness of your faces. That which has shone through your words and work has been your supreme gift to

men. For it is not you, but the Father which dwelleth in you, who doeth His works.

"As the tide on a crescent sea-beach, when the moon is new and thin,
Into our hearts high yearnings come welling and surging in;
Come from the mystic ocean, whose rim no foot hath trod.
Some call it inspiration, but others call it God."

State Supervision and Administration

REPORT OF COMMITTEE

A CONSIDERATION OF STATE INTERVENTION IN THE FIELD OF CHARITY

BY RUTHERFORD H. PLATT, MEMBER OF OHIO BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, CHAIRMAN.

State supervision for charitable and correctional work is a subject of perennial interest. The last word has not been said on any phase of it. But so much has been said, in former Conferences, on its importance, methods and various agencies, that it seems permissible, for once, to pass it by in the report of the Committee; particularly in view of the fact that it is well represented in other titles on the program.

One fact must be mentioned, as belonging to this Report—and it is a pleasure to record it—Virginia has recently organized a Board of State Charities. A carefully considered bill, providing for such a Board, received the approval of the legislators of this state at their last session and was passed without a single dissenting vote in one house and with only one dissenting vote in the other. Such unanimity argues well for the future influence and usefulness of the new Board.

It is proposed to direct attention to a feature or development which seems rather pronounced at this time; viz., the growth of institutions and charitable agencies.

There is an increase every year of institutions; they grow in size; they grow in number; new types and kinds are added. And, besides the public institutions, there are private charities innumerable, and constantly increasing in number, variety and resources. The aggregate of this increase, year by year, is very great in our forty-six states.

But in the ideal social condition to which we lift up our

hopes, or imaginings, there is no need, no place, for charitable or penal institutions. Charity as a virtue, an attribute of the soul, is beautiful and good beyond expression. But impersonal, mechanical agencies of charity are, at best, like surgery and medicine, necessary evils. It must be conceded that the best that could happen to *organized* charity—its institutions and agencies—would be to pass from the scene, its work completed; glorified in such passing but unlamented.

But the ideal of universal health and happiness is, in the nature of things, unattainable in this world; not because of the infinity of ills to be cured, but because the very destiny of man presupposes and assumes the existence of evil. So long as man is man, evil in some shape must be part of the universal scheme. Human virtues discover themselves only under conditions involving the possibility of corresponding vices. Evil is, in a real sense, the opportunity of Good.

> "Sweet are the uses of adversity,
> Which like the toad, ugly and venomous,
> Wears yet a precious jewel in his head."

The present purpose is to consider the public policy or duty involved in the State's intervention, and ever growing intervention, in the field of charity.

THE TENDENCY

No one, least of all members of State Boards of Charity, can doubt the tendency toward expansion. The benevolent, the public spirited, and different influential groups are constantly putting forth earnest efforts to have the state undertake one new work or another, in the cause of humanity. Hospitals for the tuberculous; institutions for crippled children; further state aid for the blind; employment for the honest laborer out of a job. These and other undertakings for the unfortunate are earnestly urged upon the state.

The cause of the unfortunate justly appeals to humane feelings and sympathetic impulses. It appeals to the best side of human nature and to all right-minded men—to those responsible for the state's action no less than to others. Furthermore, those who urge the claims of some particular class of unfortunates

present their cause as not only worthy from a philanthropic standpoint, but as of right *entitled* to the bounty of the state. In support of this the fact that others are receiving aid is cited. How, it is urged, can the state, with justice, prefer one class of unfortunates over another; if one such class is provided for by the state, why not all, in the measure of their needs?

The relation of the state to its people is likened to that of a parent to his child; from this figure of speech, and the duty of a parent to his child is drawn the idea that the state has a duty in the premises; that view is believed to prevail to a very considerable extent. Look at it in that way, a generous fulfilment of this duty—vast sums expended by the state to ameliorate the lot of its unfortunate children—the taking on of new classes of unfortunates for state care, previously left, as the phrase goes, to the cold charity of the world—these become matters of state pride. One state vies with another.

If the duty of charity is thought of as an individual duty—the duty of the fortunate to help the unfortunate, the strong to help the weak—it is noted as resting on all alike and the state is looked upon as a device for getting this individual duty performed, at the same time that it eases the individual of his burden. None able to contribute can shirk, because all such bear as taxpayers the burdens of the state. And, at the same time, all are relieved of individual care and responsibility, when the state takes all care and responsibility upon itself. At times it seems that the only effective barrier against making of the state a Universal Providence is the financial difficulty. The resources of the state, though great, are not unlimited. In view of the tendency, the influences and the plausible arguments noted, and of vital consequences involved, the question of public policy or duty in the premises becomes of pre-eminent importance, and none more deeply concerns State Boards of Charity.

ARGUMENT

Government with us is still and likely to remain essentially individualistic. It stands for individual freedom, individual responsibility. Its primary function and duty is the protection of individual rights.

By common consent, there is vast scope within the proper

province of the state for activities which are in some way tributary to the duty to protect, or consistent therewith, and which have for their purpose *the promotion of the public welfare.*

Factory laws, child labor laws, tenement house legislation, pure food laws—but, above all, provision for education—the public school system—illustrate the great part which the state rightfully takes in the work of improving social conditions. Philanthropic endeavor which is concerned with cause rather than effect, and directed to prevention rather than cure, could accomplish little without the aid of the state.

Education, which implies the training and development of character as well as the imparting of knowledge, ought to be the greatest of preventive agencies. With perfect methods and system of education, an educated criminal would be as great an anomaly as an educated illiterate; and no educated person would be found among those dependent upon charity, unless from accident or what is known in law as the act of God. But that other side of philanthropic work—care for the unfortunate —the relief of individual need—what principle or considerations fix the limit for the state in that direction. All will agree that there must be a limit. To attempt to make of the state a Universal Providence means absolute and speedy ruin.

The noxious ingredient in all alms or external aids is well understood. They foster the selfish instinct and encourage dependency. They tend thus to defeat the one true aim of all effort to improve social conditions. Dependency will never be cured with more dependency, nor the soul strengthened by fostering the instinct of selfishness.

In the matter of charitable relief there is a reverse law of supply and demand; the demand for relief tends always to equal or outrun the supply. There is no exception to this law in favor of state relief. On the contrary the law works with more than usual effect when the state is the almsgiver. Who hesitates to take advantage of the state? Opportunity to take advantage of the state is for most men an irresistible temptation. We all know this to be true. Those who have passed through the New York custom house, on their return from a trip abroad, know it. Those who have been called upon to make return of their personal property and put a valuation on the

same for taxation know it. Those who have seen a valuable public franchise coming their way know it.

When the state creates an institution for the custody and care of a certain class of unfortunates, this may not present itself to the unfortunates themselves as a privilege; with very few exceptions those cared for in hospitals for the insane, for instance, enter and remain very much against their will. At first thought, such institutions, whose care is so reluctantly received, seem to have no element of pauperizing alms—nothing tending to invite dependency and encourage evasion of individual duty. But the invitation of the state, when it opens a benevolent institution, is less an invitation to come and be cared for, than it is an invitation to send some one else—relatives or dependents—and have them cared for at the expense of the state. The unfortunate received and kept against his will may be better cared for and with better promise of a cure, than would be possible without such provision by the state; but there is another beneficiary, the one who is relieved of the burden of his care when the state assumes it.

This particular point is illustrated by a modern instance, which seems to enlighten the whole subject, and for this reason, is presented in some detail.

In the Report of the National Conference held at San Francisco in 1889, may be read an account by Mr. F. B. Sanborn of the experience of Massachusetts in largely increasing, at great expense, its hospital accommodation for the insane. Provision was made for the best known treatment on a generous scale. It was estimated that by dealing with the matter in a large and generous way the increase of insanity could be permanently arrested. New York, Illinois, Ohio and other states followed the example. All confidently looked for the promised results, and, to quote Mr. Sanborn, "The Boards of Charity were puzzled in Massachusetts and New York at first, and presently in Illinois and Ohio and in other states, to find that the insane were increasing rapidly, in apparent contradiction of the prevalent theory. The building of a new hospital, instead of diminishing insanity, seemed to develop it."

Provision for the insane is for a class admittedly within a proper limit for the state's care. And it would seem to be a

class clearly enough defined. It would not occur, at first thought, that such a class would be subject to unwarranted increase, or that providing for the insane in the most generous way would tend to produce the noxious sort of dependency. But it is a fact that the building of new hospitals, instead of diminishing insanity, has seemed to develop it.

Not many years ago hospitals, or asylums as they were commonly called, for the insane, were dread places, characterized by prison bars, all sorts of cruel restraints and little or no scientific treatment; compared with the hospitals of the present day they were places of torture. The necessity had to be real and compelling to induce the commitment of a man or woman to their care. Those who could, by any possibility, be kept out of the asylums were kept out.

Conditions are now very different and what is the result? Some who ought to have been so cared for before are now for the first time there; but many, very many, who are not proper subjects for such hospital treatment or for restraint are now there too. There are entire wards of old people, for instance, serenely living out their lives not in perfect contentment, but in physical comfort, and living a regular daily round to well beyond four score years of age.

Where were old women and old men such as these, before the state provided for them? They perhaps did not live so long, but while they did live they were, most of them, at home, with children and grandchildren about them. They were something of a care, but many of them were a benign influence in the home. They were missed and truly mourned when their time came to be laid away. These old people are perhaps only dimly conscious of missing something, and, doubtless, their lives are lengthened. But their discontent is not without reason; they are missing something; the familiar home surroundings, the home people and all that goes to make up family life. And those at home, they are missing something too, though they are, perhaps, not conscious of it.

Every public institution is a standing invitation to an uncounted number to come and be cared for, or to bring relatives or dependents and have them cared for. The more attractive, comfortable and wholesome it is in its appointments and what

it furnishes, the more tempting the invitation. The invitation has become so strong that it is irresistible in many cases—hundreds of cases—which under former conditions would have been more happily cared for under the promptings of filial duty or individual obligation.

The illustration afforded by hospitals for the insane is given added force by the requirements attending the commitment of the insane. The doors are not wide open; a judicial proceeding and finding, expert professional opinion in the form of a doctor's certificate, are required, to open the doors. But the results prove that even this is not sufficient safe-guard against the tendency to put all care upon the state.

> "Upon the king! Let us our lives, our souls,
> Our debts, our careful wives,
> Our children, and our sins lay on the king."

The judicial proceeding is usually "ex parte." The probate judge before whom it comes is a man of wide acquaintance and apt to be on a friendly footing with many of his fellow citizens throughout the county; when one of them decides that some member of his family, say his wife's mother, well stricken in years and falling into dotage, would be more comfortable and better cared for in the State Hospital than at home, his initiative, readily supported by his family physician, has but one natural outcome. The old lady goes in due course to the hospital. The commitment, ostensibly for needed care and treatment, is often, in reality, to relieve some one of a duty which has come to be regarded as burdensome.

The statement is hazarded, with a conviction of its truth, that there is not a state charitable or correctional institution in the land without inmates who do not properly belong there, and numbered more often in tens than in units, and that most of those wrongfully in the charitable institutions, and even some of those in the correctional, represent evasion of individual duty and responsibility. They are there to relieve some one of a duty regarded as onerous when facilities for shirking it are at hand.

This is no argument for abolishing state hospitals for the insane, or making them less well ordered—more repellent. It

suggests that their approaches should be more carefully guarded, admissions more strictly limited. But the present purpose of this citation from experience is to illustrate the tendency of all state aid for the relief of the unfortunate, even the most beneficent and most necessary, to weaken in some quarter the sense of individual responsibility and duty.

One other illustration is given, also with some detail, quite different, but, it is believed, not less in point. The problem of unemployment is one that appeals strongly to philanthropic impulses at all times; and, at recurrent periods of industrial depression, assumes appalling proportions. When one-half or more of the vast throng employed in the factories and manifold industrial occupations and enterprises are suddenly thrown out of employment, the problem seems too large and overwhelming for the resources of private charity. At such times, particularly, the demand that the matter be dealt with by the state, or by governmental units of the state, municipalities, becomes insistent, and seems the only course that can avail. As a temporary expedient conditions may justify some such assistance. From a temporary expedient to a settled policy is a long step. But the demand for some permanent provision is pressed upon the state.

Men able and willing to work, from causes quite beyond their control, find their opportunity for work taken from them, and are faced with the alternative of alms or starvation for themselves and their families. This is truly a hard lot. It takes on the semblance of a social wrong. It revolts the mind to think of the sturdy spirit of industry brought thus to the low estate of idle dependency. The phrase "right to work" becomes current. A right implies a corresponding obligation or duty. The conclusion that this obligation or duty belongs to the state is but a little step further.

This problem, ever new, is an old acquaintance to the student of history. State intervention has been resorted to again and again.

One of the first acts of the French Republic of 1848, following the revolution which expelled Louis Philippe, was the decree of February 25th, 1848, to the effect that the French republic guaranteed a livelihood to the workman by means of his

work, and guaranteed work to all its citizens. On the next day was decreed the immediate establishment of national work shops, and a bureau was created charged with the details of the undertaking. This action accorded with the impulses and public sentiment of the time. It had the unqualified support of the government. The work of organization began at once under an enthusiastic leader who called to his aid a band of assistants described by him as "filled with zeal and animated with the best intentions." Headquarters and a center of activity were established in a former royal villa, the site of which is now a beauty spot in Paris, the Park Monceaux. There is nothing in its present well-ordered arrangement and charming effect to bring up a vision of tragic events.

The essential details are, in brief, as follows: A moderate rate of pay was fixed, one and one-half francs for days of inactivity, and two francs for days of work. The men were organized in squads of eleven men under a chief, who was paid three francs; five squads made up a brigade and so on. On March 9th the enrolment began, at first 3,000; and the first job of work was commenced. This was to root up and clear away the stumps and remains of trees destroyed on the boulevards during the revolutionary fighting, and to plant new ones. This provided activity for only a few hundreds, so the others, to give them a day of work, were sent on foot to fetch tools from the forts around Paris, located some miles out, and to fetch young trees from distant nurseries, a method of transport which Mr. Thomas says "was at once ruinous and absurd; but what did the loss of a few hundred francs matter in comparison with the terrible example of giving a subsidy to idle men?" That has a familiar sound. The year 1848 was not so far behind in these matters.

The next day an additional 1,200 men arrived, and so on, day by day, the lists grew and the problem of finding work became every day more serious. On March 15th there were 14,000 unoccupied men, besides those who were enjoying a day of activity. "The government engineers were instructed by the ministry to specify works that were possible, rather than works that were really useful." But still the growing lists far outran the utmost scope of even possible works. The following incident

is rather striking—the manual laborer is not the only laborer or wage earner liable to be out of a job—six hundred persons, —dramatic artists, painters, sculptors, designers, bank clerks and shop assistants—made their appeal for work; or perhaps it is more proper to say for pay.

"The republic has guaranteed work to every citizen. We have none. We do not ask that work should be given to us, as was promised, each in our occupation. We know that this would be impossible. But at least give us the opportunity of honorably earning the bread we need. We are at the end of our resources, and the municipal authorities refuse to give us tickets of admission to the *ateliers nationaux* because we wear the clothes to which we have been accustomed and not the dress of workmen. Yet we are worthy of pity as well as they." The ministry of public works ordered that they be taken on, and the whole 600 were employed "as inspectors of pay sheets and to visit the ordinary workmen in their homes and report on their physical and moral condition." By the end of April the number enrolled had risen to more than 100,000, and most of them had "ceased to make even a pretense of working." The financial situation was becoming impossible. Within two months the great cause was recognized as a dangerous drain on the resources of the nation.

Then began efforts to substitute piece price work for day labor—real work for the pretense—to send back to the provinces men who had passed into Paris—to require all between 17 and 25 to enlist in the army or forfeit the right of work and a livelihood guaranteed by the national decree. These and other measures of retreat were resorted to. With what effect? "An insurrection broke out, barricades were erected and for three days it was uncertain whether the government or the unemployed should win." Three thousand were killed in the fighting, more than three thousand were transported to Algeria. This ended the "right to work" under the French republic of 1848; and settled the question so far as that republic could settle it. It took just four months to try it out.

These two illustrations afford practical demonstration that state intervention in the field of charitable relief is a dangerous expedient. The essence of the whole matter is this, state aid,

unduly extended, tends ever and unfailingly to destroy the sense of individual duty and responsibility. If the state is to be a universal Providence, the correlative of this is universal dependence. Every ill-advised step in that direction is an attempt to cure dependency with more dependency. Daniel Webster's vision of the consequences of disunion, "the broken and dishonored fragments of a once glorious state," seems to picture the final catastrophe, if it were conceivable that such a tendency could run its course unchecked.

The idea that a state is under a duty to enter the field of benevolence, to relieve the unfortunate, should be repelled. Such idea is pernicious. The real duty draws the state the other way. Justice, not benevolence, is the true function of the state. To inculcate such false idea tends to advance the state upon a wrong course, or as the alternative to embitter all those of the unfortunate who are not relieved by the state. The withholding of relief becomes to their minds an injustice, the denial of a right.

The idea of parental duty applied to the state has its root in a figure of speech. But a figure of speech is neither a scientific principle, nor is it as a fact true, however true in a figurative sense. It is an unsafe basis for logical deduction. If, however, the analogy be treated as sufficient for the purposes, the wrong conclusion is drawn. The wise parent teaches the child the lesson of independence. Too much paternalism on the part of a real parent, too, is mischievous.

This argument, as already noted, is not for absolute exclusion of the state from the field of charitable relief. The question must be answered on considerations of expediency applicable to each particular proposal. An evil must sometimes be chosen as the lesser of two alternative evils. Choice of the lesser evil in matters of public concern is, on the whole, promotive of the public welfare. On that ground, and solely on that ground, can the intervention of the state in the field of charitable relief be justified. If this is true, the financial difficulty is not the only nor the chief argument against demands that the state take on ever more and more of those types of unfortunates heretofore cared for under the obligation of individual duty. The plea is that no such plan be entered upon unad-

visedly or lightly; that considerations of humanity and benevolence be not given too much weight.

Those charged with responsibility for the state's policy should harden their hearts and turn a face of flint against philanthropic appeals for state aid based solely on these grounds. The inquiry should be, will the public welfare be promoted—not, is it desirable that the individual need be relieved. When the latter consideration and the benevolent impulse is allowed to determine the policy of the state, not only is this contrary to true principles of government, but it tends, at the same time, to dry up the springs of private charity—to invalidate appropriate sources of relief.

Considerations which justify certain state institutions for the care of unfortunates and state provision, under given conditions, for the relief of distress, as the lesser of alternative evils, will readily occur. There is now no time for that further extension of the theme.

It is intended, within the time allowed, only to suggest the importance of adhering to a policy of exclusion as the rule; subject to exception, but only when the necessity for exception, from the standpoint of the public welfare, is made apparent.

The future strength of the nation depends on present influences. Too much paternalism in the state, as is well known, is a weakening influence. If, as seems to be the case, there is a tendency toward extension of charitable relief by the state, and on fallacious grounds, it is a duty of a State Board of Charity to oppose this tendency—above all not to encourage it. Every intervention of the state in the field of charitable relief is cause for concern and apprehension—not for congratulation or rejoicing.

There remain two considerations quite apart from the line of thought so far pursued. The state should not take on benevolent work of a new kind so long as the efficiency of work in present lines is undeveloped. Aside from other considerations, a few institutions developed to the limit of efficiency, are better than many slackly administered.

Finally, there is the financial question. Ohio is instanced because the figures happen to be at hand; and there is no reason to think that Ohio is exceptional. The population is about

4,000,000. "When three institutions now under way are completed the state will have 26 such establishments to support, at an annual cost exceeding $5,000,000." This statement is taken from Governor Harris' message of last January.

The cost of county and municipal institutions, infirmaries, children's homes, workhouses and jails in the 88 counties adds about two and a half millions. Seven million dollars is the approximate annual cost of charitable and correctional or penal institutions within the state. This is about one-third as much as the annual cost of the public schools. What significance there may be in these figures is another matter that must be left untouched.

THE NEED OF STATE SUPERVISION FOR BOTH PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CHARITIES

BY MRS. KATE WALLER BARRETT, M. D., D. SC.

The need of state supervision over public charities and those expending public money in this enlightened day is seldom questioned. For a private charity, receiving public money, to object to state supervision is almost *prima facie* evidence of the fact that there is something in its methods which would not commend itself to enlightened public sentiment and might result in having its revenues reduced or cut off, if the knowledge of its methods became public.

We rejoice that this is true and we believe that because of this supervision the inmates of our various charitable institutions, subject to such supervision, are cared for more economically and more efficiently than was the case under the old method.

Having been associated much of my life with private charities, each year I am more of the opinion than before, that private charities need the supervision of the State Board of Charities for their own advancement and protection whether they receive public money or not.

The general public as a rule have more respect for public charities than they have for private charities, because they are supervised. Public charities are given more money to spend,

per capita, and have opportunity to appeal to public sentiment for the advancement of methods and equipment, from which private charities are debarred.

Even the philanthropic workers in private charities are not looked upon as people belonging to the same intellectual rank as those connected with public charities. Most persons connected with private charities have had no special training; they generally give their services without remuneration. From these facts and because private charities have not the same means to exploit the work done by their associations, and do not appreciate the value of full reports, etc., the idea seems to have gained ground that those who work in private charities are as soft headed as they are soft hearted and therefore incapable of using wise discretion in regard to their beneficiaries. While recognizing that this is true, most persons connected with private charities remain either acquiescent or else are openly opposed to having a State Board vested with authority to supervise private charities and public alike.

The majority of those who are the legitimate beneficiaries of both public and private charities are rightly wards of the state, and the state has no right to allow some one else complete jurisdiction over them unless it is persuaded that they are the proper persons to exercise such authority and that the methods which they use are such as to benefit both the recipients and the public; adding to the number of self-supporting, self-respecting citizens and by so doing lessening the burden upon the state.

Although a person may have an instinct of kindness and the financial means to put into effect this instinct in some material manner, yet the state should not allow him to do so, unless the ultimate effect of the movement be for the permanent betterment of society. Often unenlightened, but misguided, sympathy will do more harm than good, and many persons by their efforts, unselfish though they are, have been the undoing or retarding of the upbuilding work of associated public charities.

The taxpayers and charitably inclined of the community have a right to know that the wards of the state are being cared for in the most efficient and least expensive manner. From the

fact that each ward of the state represents an individual problem, they should not be dealt with *en masse.* To classify criminals, for instance, according to their crime, under our present system of criminology, is almost as senseless as to classify them according to the color of their hair and eyes.

It is impossible to know how the best can be made of any certain individual unless exact information in regard to the nature and quality of both the private and public institutions of the state are well known to those who have the duty of caring for him. This knowledge can not be gained from information which is given by those in authority alone. We are often blind to the thing which is nearest to us. Our pet charity is as dear to us as our favorite child and we are apt to take a partial and illogical view of it.

Suggestions and friendly criticisms made by a State Board would be of the greatest value in perfecting the work of many private institutions. I have learned this from personal experience. For many years I have been associated with a large private institution in the District of Columbia receiving public funds; for years we had no Board of Charities; everyone went to congress for aid, and the one who was the most conscienceless and could put up the most pitiful or eloquent story got the largest appropriation. There was no co-operation of forces. The charities of the kind which was the most popular in the public mind were numerous, while those for the classes that were not a good "taking card" were exceedingly few. None of the many charities, either public or private, was a model of excellence. After many years of this condition of affairs a Board of Charities was appointed, and while all has not been accomplished that is hoped for, still the most violent objector must acknowledge that a vast change for the better has come about in the charities of the District of Columbia. Not only does the public know where the public money goes and how it is spent, but institutions have received valuable assistance from the oversight and suggestions of the agents of the Board of Charities.

Of course much of the success of a Board of Charities depends upon the personnel of the Board which the governor appoints. If the Board is simply to be a figurehead and leave everything in the hands of its paid secretary, it is a very poor

excuse for what a Board of Charities should really stand for. The fact that a certain number of persons have been appointed by the governor as properly equipped to know what is best for the charitable institutions of the state, is not a patent of nobility, for them. The Board has got to "make good" and show to those in control of the charities that they are competent to criticise and advise, before their work will mean much. If there should be any lack of co-operation between the State Board and the Board of Managers of an institution, or a difference of opinion, public sentiment is often the best arbiter, and as public sentiment is embodied in the taxpayers and philanthropists who hold the purse strings, they can easily see that right is upheld.

Above everything the State Board should be removed above party strife and should be composed of persons having a social conscience and social imagination, and while their interest in public affairs would naturally make them active in all matters, even politics, they should be men who stand for the greatest good to the greatest number, rather than party politicians.

I use the term "Men" in its generic sense, because I believe that the most efficient State Boards are composed of both men and women. Many undesirable things in institutions have not been uncovered because of the fact that there was no woman on the State Board and that a Board, composed of men, had to deal largely with women in charge of many institutions. Men never did know women and they are absolutely incapable if a woman is young, and has "the gift of the gab," of seeing through her pretenses. By this I do not mean any disrespect to the perceptive power of men, but God created them so for the happiness of the human family. It would be perfectly terrible to have to live in the house with our fathers, husbands, sons and brothers if they could see through all of the little harmless artifices of the feminine character.

By suggesting that a woman would see further into these things than a man I do not mean either to insinuate that women are too inquisitive or are inclined to meddle in things with which they have no business. So called mischief makers have done a lot of good in the world. If there is no basis for a justifiable complaint any mischief maker can be quietly silenced. If there

is just cause for complaint, it is well to have it brought to light, whether the person who uncovers it is a mischief maker or not. But, joking apart, the internal affairs of an institution are largely of a character with which women are more familiar than men. If God intended every private home to have both masculine and feminine at its head to properly conduct it, surely we can not do better than to follow His example in the great public and private institutions which might more justly deserve the beautiful name of "Home" than they do, if there were both male and female instincts joined in their conduct.

But the most important reason, next to the welfare of the wards of the state, for requiring state supervision over private charities is the fact that the state grants to every private charity which holds real estate or is so organized as to be perpetuated, certain rights in its charter, and the state should be able to assure itself that these rights are properly safeguarded. No charity can do very much along the line of organization without a charter. The state grants this charter without cost, and by this means makes it possible for an institution to receive legacies, to hold real estate, and in a way stands for the respectability and value of the organization in the eye of the public. The fact that a charity has a charter is looked upon as a guarantee of its value and honesty of administration, but the state signally fails to safeguard these rights and makes it possible for people to receive money under practically false pretenses, when it grants such a charter, upon the request of persons of whom they know little and of their successors, of whom they know nothing, and then asks no accounting of the stewardship. No organization should be chartered by the state unless it is willing to submit to such supervision as will guarantee the state from being the unconscious partner of those who either from ignorance or fraud, are unsuited to deal with the problems for which it was chartered.

Surely the state should exert as much authority over property that is left to a charitable institution, which is chartered, in order that it may legitimately hold such gifts, as it does over a legacy that is left to an individual who is a minor, or property that is left to the care of a trustee. To illustrate, if I should die and leave my estate divided equally between my

minor children and some private child-saving organization in the state, I would find that the state would take infinite pains to see that the property I left to my minor children was protected in every way. A trustee would be appointed by the court, who would have to get the consent of the court before he could make any investment except of a certain character, at certain stated times he would have to render an account of his stewardship to the court and in addition would have to give a large bond to guarantee his faithful observance of the trust imposed in him. But how different would be the fate of the other half of my fortune left to the minor children cared for in private institutions. The money would be turned over to the officers of the society, the receipt of the treasurer being usually the only guarantee required. How my wishes would be carried out in connection with the gift would be left entirely to the judgment and preference of the Board of the society. At the next annual election the entire personnel of the Board of Directors might be changed and, instead of those whom I had loved and trusted, others totally different might have been elected in their places. The whole legacy might be squandered or misapplied, and the state could, or rather I might say, would do nothing. Is that right? Has a state the moral right to charter an institution over which it has no control?

We frequently hear the charge made that good laws have but little deterrent effect upon evil doers, but at least they serve as an excellent guide to those who want to travel the right road. I believe most people who are connected with private charities want to do right; some of the most fatal mistakes that they have made have been entirely from ignorance and from a lack of proportion in their mental vision.

We, in Virginia, are just starting out under a State Board of Charities. We rejoice that at this important period in our development we have been privileged to have in our midst such a splendid and wise organization as this, experienced for many years in instructing and educating public sentiment upon these important subjects. We feel sure that in no other manner could our state have received such concrete and valuable instruction as through your visit. We thank you for your presence among us and what you have done for us, and we hope that you will

carry with you some pleasant memories of our well beloved Mother, the Old Dominion, who though she may now lag somewhat behind the progress made by her more active daughters, was still the inspiration of the birth of many of the philanthropic and charitable organizations which now bless the earth.

SHAPING THE DESTINIES OF THE NEW STATE

BY MISS KATE BARNARD, COMMISSIONER OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, OKLAHOMA

Great crises come occasionally in human life. The same is true of a state. It was a crisis in the life of Oklahoma and of every individual in it, when the United States granted the Territory the Enabling Act, conferring upon the new commonwealth all the powers and responsibility that go with statehood, chief of which is to make laws to govern the people. There had existed a settled belief that we should not have statehood for many years, with the result that the Enabling Act found us young and ignorant of statecraft and unprepared for the responsibility.

Previous to this time I had been a charity worker which led me into social research for the cause of poverty and other abnormal social phenomena with which a charity worker comes in contact. As a member of the Labor Union I had come face to face with certain ugly social facts, and statehood spelled for me the one word—Responsibility. I was one of the few who had an opportunity for study or research. I lay awake at nights and felt that in eternity I would be responsible to God and posterity for the things that were done in the new state. Most of our people had never seen a slum; were ignorant of the horrors of child labor; and knew nothing of tenements or sweat-shops—and without laws to prevent, all of these horrors would come to curse the future of Oklahoma.

At that time there was no systematized social effort; transportation had not reached all parts of the state; social workers were few and acquaintance was impossible. One of the hardships of our western life is that each has to wrestle alone with

mighty problems, with almost no comradeship or sympathy. Whether any other individual formulated a systematic campaign for definite social results I cannot say, but one night as I lay awake turning over the problem there came as a flash this idea —build up state sentiment—work on public opinion. Do this through the press and platform; go to St. Louis and Chicago and secure data, make a personal inspection of the factories and conditions of life of the workers and their children; meet the great social workers and authors and secure manuscript articles on the horrors of these conditions with suggestions for preventive legislation in Oklahoma; start a press campaign with these articles; line up the American Federation of Labor and the Farmers' State Union for this legislation; personally stump the state, describing the sweat-shop horrors, factory life, etc., thus creating the public sentiment with which the politicians always fall in line. Perhaps some who hear this message may use the same plan in Arizona or New Mexico and thus push progress elsewhere.

The next day I saw the editor of the leading newspaper of the state and secured transportation, promising that his paper should receive the manuscripts. I carried a letter of introduction to the Mayor of St. Louis. This brought me in touch with J. C. A. Hiller, factory inspector of Missouri, who deputized me and furnished a factory inspector escort. For several days I spent all my time visiting bagging factories, cement mills, fertilizers, box-factories, steel works—in short seeing "How the Other Half Live." Mr. McClain, Mrs. Philip M. Moore, Rose Marion and others furnished me with manuscript. Mr. Beanenstock of the Jewish Charities showed me the misery of the Ghetto. Miss Perry gave me the idea of a State Charity Department. Rabbi Harrison and Archbishop Glennon showed great interest in Oklahoma.

Then I was off to Chicago. I visited and studied the Juvenile Court there and in Denver, and learned that it was the proper way for Oklahoma to discipline her wayward boys and girls. I joined Graham Taylor's School of Philanthropy and by the help of such people as Dr. H. H. Hart, Professor Henderson, Mrs. Henrotin, Jane Addams, Mary McDowell, Jean Cogshill and others, I saw the best and worst of this great city.

My conclusion was that poverty, crime, ignorance, disease, and child labor were the great problems with which Oklahoma must deal—that legislation must be passed that would reduce these problems to a minimum. I saw that unsanitary workshops and dwellings, accidents in industry and long hours bring about disease, and that disease and low wages (which compel poor and insufficient food) deplete the vitality of man until he is unable to work to maintain himself and either becomes a pauper, increasing the ranks of poverty, or resorts to a life of crime. Child labor, sapping the vitality of childhood, was producing a race of physical degenerates to curse the republic.

With regard to crime I was told that poverty, disease and ignorance are its chief causes. I learned that there was a positive school of criminology which teaches that the individual commits crime because his poverty, abnormal environment or weak physical condition act as a cause to produce the crime as the effect. Applying this principle, if we could minimize these factors for crime in Oklahoma, we could save the state thousands of dollars by lessening the cost of prosecutions and save hundreds of men from crime itself. In short we needed wise industrial and social legislation, laws that should be preventive rather than remedial.

The question of what voting forces would be especially benefited by this legislation was carefully considered. So it came about that I appealed to the members of the American Federation of Labor and Farmers' State Union. The response was so general that we called a joint mass meeting and constructed a platform of twenty-four Labor Planks which we presented to the candidates of both political parties who were at that time engaged in a desperate struggle to see which would write the Constitution of Oklahoma. Together with a copy of these twenty-four planks we directed a letter asking each candidate to sign his name and pledge his support to the same. Six days before the election we sent a list of all those who had pledged, regardless of which party they represented, to the three thousand labor and farmer unions of the state, with the request that each man in the union should vote for the men who stood for our twenty-four demands.

In the meantime the press was kept busy and its columns

teemed with articles on child labor, compulsory education, sweat-shops, tenements, etc., furnished by such noted writers as Jacob Riis, Luther Burbank, Edward Markham, John Spargo, Jane Addams, A. J. McKelway, Owen Lovejoy, Charles R. Henderson, Samuel McCune Lindsey, J. C. A. Hiller, H. H. Hart, and others.

As a result we secured at the election seventy-two out of one hundred and twelve delegates to the Constitutional Convention. When the Convention assembled I went before that body and gave them an accurate description of conditions just as I had found them in Chicago and St. Louis. The delegates proved true and the Constitution contained the twenty-four labor planks. We submitted it to a vote of the people and it carried by forty thousand majority. But because the state had gone democratic and because the Constitution was written by democrats the republican politicians tried to induce President Roosevelt not to sign the necessary proclamation of statehood.

About this time the great National Conference of Charities and Correction met in Minneapolis. The politicians were claiming our twenty-four labor planks to be "freak" legislation. As a great many of these planks had been suggested by leaders of the National Conference, I resolved to go to Minneapolis and ask for help. I arrived the first day of the Conference. No one whom I knew had come. I felt hopelessly lost. It is a terrible thing to be at a conference of seventeen hundred people, to long to plead for a great cause and not to know whether you will be heard. But you were very good to me. I hope you will be as kind to future strangers. No one knows but God how important may be the message they bring.

Finally I found Mr. McClain. He helped me to lay my case before President Butler, who said, "Certainly we will give you a hearing." You know the result. You brought your influence to bear upon the President and he signed his name to the proclamation giving us statehood, which carried liberty to a million and a half of people, and made possible the industrial legislation which means the greatest benefit to the working classes of the new state.

While at this convention I met a man. The meeting of individuals will sometimes change the destiny of a state. New

social and ethical forces came into Oklahoma. I asked him if he would help a little state to secure some great people to lecture on humanitarian subjects before its legislature. He said, "Most anything would be possible for Oklahoma." He helped to bring us Dr. Hart, Mr. McKelway, Alexander Johnson, Dr. Barrows and Judge Lindsey, of Denver. These lectured on the best methods of caring for the insane, the feeble-minded, the prisoners and children. They drafted model bills on Child Labor, Compulsory School Attendance, Juvenile Court, Adult Probation, Indeterminate Sentence, Care and Treatment of the Insane and Care and Education of the Feeble-minded. These men were all well received. If the west has any virtue it is that we are willing to learn.

Before the first Legislature we kept a legislative board of twenty-one men, representing the farmers and laborers. We worked together on the bills. As a result we have a splendid mining bill which experts say is the greatest protection ever given to the miner. Another bill to lessen mortality in the mines provides for a School of Mines and Mining, which we expect to follow up with a law prohibiting any child or man from entering the mines until he has a certain amount of instruction from this school enabling him to understand the cause of black-damp, the normal amount of air, the laws governing air currents, etc. We have a good factory inspection bill and a splendid factory inspector.

Our Charity Bill gives the commissioner of charity much liberty—which means much responsibility.

Last year Mrs. Glenn suggested at the National Conference that scholarships be furnished to the children of the poor to enable them to go to school. We incorporated that idea in our Compulsory Education law. In the case of a widowed mother or disabled father being dependent upon child-wages, these will be paid during the term of compulsory education. We are trying to protect the laboring man and reduce poverty and pauperism. We passed a splendid railroad bill which compels railroads to throw all the steam off the engine before ordering a man to enter the fire-box or smoke chamber of same. Our scaffold bill will protect thousands of carpenters as years go by.

Our First State Conference of Charities and Correction has delegates here. In our State Conference we had the State President of the American Federation of Labor address us, also a Catholic bishop, a Jewish rabbi and many Protestant ministers. I believe this is evidence of our civilization.

In shaping the destinies of the New State we have tried to get away from hide-bound prejudice and old fogy precedents. Precedent is to follow what the people in the grave yard did. In the west we live for the future. Let the dead past care for the past.

Sometimes we have discovered a tendency on the part of people not to give others an opportunity. We make opportunities for the young in Oklahoma and when we are gone they will carry on our work. We try also not to take credit for what others have done but to discover the talent and ability in each and develop it. We want students, state builders, idealists and sentiment in Oklahoma. A state without sentiment is like a flower without perfume—the soul of both are dead. We want men and women to work together. Men have reason and aggression; women, intuition, sentiment, ideals and tact. Together they succeed. State building is a family affair and all should take part in it.

The State Commissioner of Charities of Oklahoma is elected by the people. Thus no governor can say, "The head of that institution helped me in the election and you must keep your hands off." This enables us to do as our conscience dictates. The people have the right to recall all state officers if they are lax in their obligations.

We feel most grateful to the people of the National Conference who have helped us. When traveling south, east or west stop over in Oklahoma. Let us know in advance and we will call a mass meeting so you may help mold the thought along your ideals. Come, we wish to learn and grow by contact with the best that is in you.

DISCUSSION

MISS LATHROP—I was very much impressed with the statement about the growing problem of State Charities. Whatever else may shrink the problems of public institutions and the responsibilities of charitable and humanitarian work of the state always grow, and never decrease.

I think our youngest sister state's spokeswoman has indicated very shrewdly the accepted notion of politics in managing public charities. The question is not one of the exact width or narrowness of the administrative function which shall be given to the Board, so much as it is whether we shall establish in this country a system by which we can call to the public service, in administering these charities, the very flower of the scientific and humanitarian ability of the state. A wise Englishman wrote on what the future of the public humanitarian work of England might be when she had made her public service so inviting that she could call her noblest and ablest sons to that service, with the certainty that they would find it adequate and satisfactory, that it would satisfy their noblest ardor and ambitions, and would give them a career as lovers of their fellows. If we are to offer men and women of this country that sort of a career, we must go farther than we have yet gone in separating the management and the control of these institutions from the management and direction of party politics. "Politician" is a very good and honorable word when it has a chance for itself. It means one who directs policies. Oklahoma is very wisely educating her legislature by the enlightened elect board of twenty-one and insisting that a wise policy of dealing with humanitarian questions shall be adopted. After these policies have been laid out in Oklahoma or in any other state in this country, we must begin to beware; for if that same body of men finds that it is necessary to its re-election to control the routine management of these institutions, then we have the evil which is as certain to ruin them as water is to run down hill. No possible ingenuity can keep in the service of the state the sort of men and women whom we desire to take care of those enterprises, if they are to be flung in and out as party interests may dictate.

Mr. Tilly—Had our good friend Mrs. Barrett applied for a charter in Massachusetts she would have been investigated and reported upon before the State Board, before a charter would have been granted. In Massachusetts they have a mixed Board composed of men and women. The ladies have given most devoted service to the work. I dare say we would not have accomplished what we have, without them on the Board. A Board should be free in selecting the agents who are going to carry out the policy that it defines. In Massachusetts the members of the Board are reappointed by the Governor, whether he be Republican or Democratic, without regard to politics. In selecting members for the State Board pains should be taken to satisfy one's self that the person selected has the proper qualifications. It should not be a reward for political labors. I do not mean to imply that they should all be charity workers; but there ought to be on every Board some charity workers and some good sensible business men. When the members have been appointed the governor should leave them free to formulate their policy. They cannot do that if he dictates as to who the employees should be. It seems to me that all the employees, except the heads of departments, should be under Civil Service Laws.

Mr. Cushing—We ought all to be glad that we have been here, and carry away with us the noble inspiration of this splendid woman from the old dominion, and keep our faces turned to the heights of the uplifted eyes of the girl from the west.

THE BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND THE PEOPLE

BY AMOS W. BUTLER, SECRETARY BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES OF INDIANA

A Board of State Charities is a representative of the people. I speak of the unpaid, non-partisan organizations generally known in this country under this or a somewhat similar name. The institutions of a state belong to the people and it is their right and duty to visit them and see how they are conducted. This they cannot do even in a single city or county; how impossible then in an entire state. There is perhaps nothing of which the public knows so little as of its state institutions. In a complete system of public charities, therefore, it is necessary for the people to have representatives clothed with authority to visit the institutions in their behalf.

Under the old system of administration, the legislature, meeting annually or biennially, was the only constituted authority for the investigation of an institution. If between its sessions scandal developed, the institution was at the mercy of the scandalmonger and the irresponsible gossip, and it was possible to wreck it before a proper investigation could be made. When finally the legislature convened, institutions that were under the domination of partisan politics were investigated by partisan legislators, and their findings often supported the management regardless of the facts, because such action was felt necessary to help the party. The time came when in a number of states the people grew dissatisfied with such conditions, and Boards of State Charities were created.

Such a Board is given the fullest authority that the legislature can bestow, to visit and inspect the institutions, to investigate the conditions that exist and to report, suggest, advise and recommend what it deems is for the best interest of all concerned. It is the duty of such a board to inform itself of the best that is being advocated and practiced in all lines of charitable effort; to inform the public of those things that should be done or left undone in order to secure better conditions or to achieve more satisfactory results. In its work it is wise to adopt as a guide the principle that it is better to prevent undesirable

conditions by helpful suggestions than to have them grow until they become a public scandal. Let it be definitely understood that a Board of State Charities, as generally recognized, is not an administrative body. Its duties are purely supervisory and it has no authority to compel the execution of its recommendations. As a last resort, it has the right to appeal to that powerful weapon against wrong, publicity through the press, and wrong cannot exist when fully exposed to the public view. It is the duty of such a board to represent the public; to see that every inmate of every public institution, local or state, receives proper care; that every institution is properly conducted; that the public funds are wisely administered. On the other hand it is a source of strength to the management in protecting it against unjust criticism.

There are some things that are essential to the effective work of such a board. Among these are a trained executive officer; uniform statistical and financial reports; a simple and comprehensive registration of the public wards; a good library; a bureau of information issuing instructive publications for general distribution. A Board of State Charities studies the whole charitable and correctional field. All the anti-social elements are but parts of one great subject. The insane, the prisoner and the pauper are but visible manifestations of human activity that may have sprung from similar causes or even the same cause. In its studies the board seeks to know the causes that underlie conditions. Knowing these it may venture to suggest remedies. It may indicate what may be done to prevent pauperism, degeneracy and crime.

Many persons, even those of intelligence, have a wrong idea of an institution. They look almost wholly upon its financial side. That side is important, but not all important or even most important. Our institutions are the visible signs of public philanthropy. They exist for the proper care, treatment and training of their wards. Back of them are conditions to be investigated, causes to be learned, problems to be studied. Without a study of these, there can be no progress in dealing with these great questions.

Who people these institutions? Whence do they come? They are the product of local conditions and they come from

every locality in the state. A large part of the state institution population comes from the local institutions—the poor asylum, the orphans' home, the jail, the hospital. Upon the manner in which these local charities are administered depends much of what the state has to do. With a low standard in the counties, the burden to be borne by the state becomes greater. Let me take from our own registration an actual case.

I have in mind two young women, sisters, who have been inmates of a state institution for the past twenty years. They will be public charges until their death. They are two of four illegitimate children born in the poor asylum by a degenerate woman who was herself a public charge. Back of them is a history of pauperism running through generation after generation. Members of the family have been inmates of local institutions—some indeed never knew any other home. Paupers though they were they were permitted to marry; encouraged by the ease with which relief was to be obtained, they made little effort at self-support; an indifferent public left it possible for their children to grow up in the midst of ignorance and degradation indescribable. The natural result was untold misery, shame and public expense. It is due to the study we have made of such conditions as these that we now have on our statute books stricter marriage laws; laws requiring better poor asylum management, improved poor relief administration, the segregation of feeble-minded women, the assexualization of confirmed criminals, idiots and rapists; child saving laws, including compulsory education, boards of children's guardians, juvenile courts, contributory delinquency, state supervision of dependent children. These and other preventive measures should in time have their effect upon the population of our institutions, as well as the citizenship of our state.

Investigation has shown, further, that the social conditions in a community are the cause of many persons becoming public charges. How can these conditions be known? How can they be helped? If out of local conditions come the social burdens of the community and the state, these conditions must be studied and presented in their true light to the people. In my own state when over 82,000 persons a year were helped by the local official overseers of the poor, at an annual expense of over $630,000, we should naturally expect as a result of that liberality a

greater number of permanent public charges than when the number, largely as a result of a study of conditions by the Board of State Charities and the enactment of laws recommended by it, was reduced over one-half and the annual expenditure by over 60 per cent. Ten years after the passage of our present poor law it was found that the average reduction below the highest expenditure had been $337,000 a year or in ten years $3,370,000. Who can compute the saving in men and women?

A Board of State Charities that is given the authority to supervise all the public charities has another equally high duty—to report to the people it represents; to tell them the conditions of the institutions and their wards and of the work being done. The inmates of the local institutions in the aggregate greatly outnumber those in the large state institutions and the cost of these local charities is greater than those of the state charities. Therefore their careful supervision and proper conduct become of the highest importance. Reports of their condition and needs will be of interest in their respective communities.

I feel one cannot emphasize too greatly that one of the most important—possibly the most important—duty of a Board of State Charities is to give to the people whom it represents all that it has learned in the great field in which its energies are employed. Such a duty implies much educational work. In this, advantage should be taken of every available agency to create wise public opinion. The churches form a natural way to reach the public. The state or district organizations of the different denominations can very properly each have its standing committee on charities. This is the practice in some states—why not in all? The purpose of such a committee briefly stated would be to become acquainted with conditions in its district and the best recognized methods of meeting them and to be a source of advice and counsel to the members of its organization. It could arrange for the observance of Prison Sunday, the last Sunday in October each year, in all its churches. That day is given to presenting prison conditions and the results of work with prisoners, the best ideas of prison reform, the causes of crime and the preventive work being done. It could show to the citizens of the county, city and township, whose officers generally come to their duties without previous experience, the

wisest way of meeting the great questions they will be called upon to solve and could secure the organization of such local agencies as well as co-operate with local officials. The churches could be interested in the local problems and their co-operation sought; for after all, the practice of charity is the practice of religion. Man in his religious nature, demands something vital in which to believe and a method of expressing that belief. What therefore will appeal to him more than rational methods in practical philanthropy? It is only necessary that he be shown the way.

Our colleges should be encouraged to present to the young people who are going forth into life's activities some sort of practical knowledge of these subjects, so they will in some measure be equipped, whenever opportunity affords, to take the proper stand for better conditions.

The teachers' association should heartily co-operate. Through work with truant and defective children, the teachers in a measure come in touch with many interesting phases of the work. They are desirous of knowing more and are easily interested in what the state is doing.

Medical societies are valuable factors in presenting the professional side of this work and usually are very much interested in all the other agencies brought to their attention.

The Bar Associations in the various states give attention to the legal phases of certain charities. Their interest can be secured and their support enlisted in many other lines of charitable endeavor. Among the great innovations in criminal law in this country in recent years are the so-called indeterminate sentence and parole law; the juvenile court law; the adult probation law.

Those who are informed should be encouraged to speak and write upon the subject of charities. The public press is a power for good in this work if we will but use it aright.

One of the most valuable agencies for advancing this cause is a State Conference of Charities. The Board should give every encouragement to it. Local conferences are also very helpful.

The library of the Board should be as good as it is possible to make it. It should be a source of reference for the colleges, schools, clubs and all persons interested in the branches of learn-

ing of which it treats. The publications of the Board should contain valuable information attractively presented. They should be distributed to libraries and individuals as widely as possible. Encouragement should be given to all proper charitable agencies and advice should be given concerning unnecessary or fraudulent organizations.

The Board of State Charities, then, as the representative of the people should know the whole system of charities in its state; it should be helpful to the institutions by suggestions and advice and should be a protection to the management; it should keep the legislature and the public informed of conditions and needs; it should have a knowledge of local conditions and of causes operating to produce pauperism, degeneracy and crime and to make their creatures public charges. Knowing conditions as they are throughout the state, it is proper for such a Board to suggest how, in its opinion, they may best be met. These should be made manifest to all the people of the state. It can recommend legislation which will be for the best interest of the work of the institutions and most helpful in solving local problems; which will result in a lessening of expense, will simplify administration and in the most effective way secure social betterment.

In the past we have had discussions as to which was preferable, a Board of State Charities or a Board of Control. That is not now the question. One is an administrative board, the other supervisory. The question properly stated is whether a central board of control is preferable to a separate administrative board for each state institution. Whether the institutions have separate boards or one board of control, there is necessity for proper supervision of the whole system of public charities, both state and local, by a properly constituted representative of the people. It will be beneficial to the institutions and to the board and valuable to the state.

Among the essentials of a good system of public charities, the public should have general knowledge of the situation regarding charities; an intelligent interest in maintaining its institutions at a good standard; a live conscience for the proper care of their wards; an active spirit towards the preventable causes of public guardianship; a sense of responsibility both for

local conditions and the state institutions. All these should be fostered by an active Board of State Charities.

EXPERIENCES IN INSPECTION

BY ALEXANDER JOHNSON, EX-SECRETARY OF THE INDIANA BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES

(The speaker emphasized the fact that only by winning the confidence of the public at large, as well as that of the people who manage the institutions, can a Board whose duties are purely supervisory, be useful to the state. He claimed that this must be done by friendly, personal and frank contact with the institution managers, and by the same frankness and friendliness to the representatives of the press through whom one can best reach the general public. Several instances of the speaker's early experience in inspection were given.)

INSPECTION IN NEW YORK

BY R. W. HILL, SECRETARY OF THE NEW YORK STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES

I, too, have gone to the county alms-houses. I have sat on the front porch with the county superintendent of the poor and have discussed local politics and the internal administration of institutions. I have gone into the hospitals and listened to the superintendent's tales of woe, and endeavored to cheer him in his arduous task. But I have felt all the time that such personal relations represented only one side of the usefulness of the inspector.

In the state of New York we have an annual meeting of the county superintendents of the poor, at which the keepers of the alms-houses, the county superintendents of the poor, the matrons, the members of the local boards of county supervisors and others, meet to discuss the problems connected with the county alms-houses. There the inspector of the State Board will meet the men and women whom he has met at other times and places when he was about his official business. There these

people discuss the various problems that appertain to local administration, and they look to the State Board for such suggestions and such assistance as the wider experience of the state officials may be able to give. These people are chosen by their several counties to take charge of the local institutions. The spirit of frankness prevails. The inspector may find himself dissected, and understand his shortcomings more thoroughly than he would at any other time or place. Sitting upon the porch of the county alms-house and smoking a cigar with the superintendent implies a genial fellowship which would not admit of a discordant note. And if one has sat down at the table with the county superintendent he is not in a mood to rise therefrom and criticise with any severity. If in addition to that he is smoking the superintendent's cigars, the little clouds of smoke that rise somewhat dim the vision, and he may not see things as clearly as he otherwise would.

The state of New York has embodied in its state constitution a clause, which gives to the State Board of Charities the right of visitation and of inspection in all institutions of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional or reformatory nature, whether state, municipal or county, incorporated or not incorporated; and makes it the duty of this Board to secure information for the benefit of the people, that the public may understand what is being done for the wards and dependents of the commonwealth. That is the fundamental principle incorporated in the constitution, embodied in law which authorizes the Board by its members and by its employed inspectors, to enter these institutions and make careful examination of the conditions, the administration, the inmates and the general management. This is the warrant under which the inspector has the right to go to an institution and ask to see with his own eyes what is being done there. It is the warrant which is recognized in all public institutions of our state as valid, and there has never been any attempt on the part of any institution to close the door against an inspector who is making such visitation. It is a large power, and unless it be wisely exercised, it may work a great deal of injury. It is not sufficient that the man who acts as an inspector have the confidence of the superintendent and of the public. He must have within himself qualities which will

enable him to see with clear eyes and with an understanding, unbiased mind the work which is being carried on in the institution.

These institutions are of such diverse character that it is difficult for any one inspector to undertake the solution of all problems which the different institutions present. In some of the other states the Boards of State Charities devote themselves solely to public institutions. Their work relates principally to the expenditure of the public money in institutions controlled direct by the representatives of the people. The state and the county institutions are those controlled, and the problems in these institutions are always similar. But when you take up that vast field which is covered by private charity, with the divers systems and interests and minds represented in the boards of management, and the kinds of work which are being done, a system of inspection to be fair and just must take into consideration not only the needs of the special institution, but the needs of the state as a whole, and the rights of all of those for whom the public is endeavoring, in any way, to make provision. Thus in the state of New York we have our children's institutions and our educational institutions intended for the defectives —for the mute, the feeble minded and the blind. We have the institutions which look to the care of the aged, and a great diversity of other forms of charitable efforts, which are constantly receiving endowments from philanthropists.

New York believes that inspection should be based upon authority; that back of it must be the right to demand; and the right embodied in the constitution and the laws is the warrant which the inspector possesses when he enters an institution. There is no question about it. The right is there. It is recognized, and at once the superintendent and the inspector are together on common ground.

I believe that the inspector should always go in at the front door and that the first man he should meet is the superintendent. I believe he should tell him of his mission; that he should ask the superintendent to go with him and on the way around discuss with him the various problems that may present themselves, and if he sees conditions which suggest possible improvement, the superintendent is there to listen to suggestions,

and they can talk them over. When this inspection has been made, the inspector should be at liberty to go by himself to any part of the institution, if he desires to do so. He should have the free opportunity for a critical investigation of any particular point he desires. When it is all done, and he has talked over with the superintendent the various matters germane to the institution's management, to render assistance, his visit will have been a welcome and helpful one.

This inspection completed, our rules require that a careful report be written, and this report is submitted to the superintendent in charge of the department, that he may go over it and see what has been said. Then it goes to a committee of the Board. When the committee of the Board has read it and determined the proper recommendations, it is presented to the Board at its meeting, and a copy is sent to those in charge of the institution with suggestions. Sometimes the suggestions are larger than the funds of the institution will warrant. Sometimes they seem to be premature, to the administration. Sometimes, too, there is a difference of view between the administration of the institution and the members of the committee. . But always bearing in mind that what the administration of the institution seeks, is the same thing that the Board itself is endeavoring to secure—the best possible way of doing the charitable work for the state, caring for the wards of the public—the suggestions made in the reports carry with them an influence which makes for betterment.

I have seen many a report go out to an institution, when I knew it would be impossible for the institution to make the changes which were suggested, because those in control had no available funds. But the report presented an ideal; something to work toward in the future. It was a pointing out which would inspire an effort on the part of the management to secure the funds.

One thing has been the happy result of this constant advice and repetition of reports, and that is that the institutions of the state of New York—not the state institutions only, not the county almshouses only, but also the institutions under private management—have been progressing steadily onward to betterment in every regard. I am sure that the superintendents of

some of these institutions who are here, and others here who are familiar with them and who were familiar with them fifteen to twenty years ago, will say that to-day they are in every way far superior in system, in general administration and conditions, and carry out their purposes far better than ever in the past.

I cannot say that that is altogether due to the system of inspection carried on under the state law by the Department of Charities, because if there has been a development by the State Board in its own ideals, similar knowledge, wider vision and keener perception has been gained by the managers of institutions, and they have worked hand in hand with the Board. But this I can say of the State Board system of inspection: It has aided the managers, has assisted in the solution of problems, has pointed out ideals, and has in that way been of substantial benefit to every institution of the state of New York. I can recall institutions which have radically changed within the last ten years, changed so completely that they are in every respect entirely new, not only in their equipment, but in their management and in their resources. This I believe is due, in large part, to the assistance reflected back from the institutions to the Board; by the efforts on the part of managers to do their part in solving the problems of charity and joining hands with the State Board in its work of assisting the institutions to higher ideals. And here, I believe, is the great gain and real power. The State Board is as an older brother to all the managements, advising, assisting and lending a helpful hand. If it fails of that, it misses an opportunity. Its purpose is to be that, and if our inspectors are indiscreet, the members of the Board endeavor to remove the results of indiscretion, and to secure the desirable end.

I think you will all agree that ideal inspectors are difficult to find. They all have faults, but with all their faults they try to do their duty as they have been taught and as experience gives them light. So don't be afraid of them. They are not detectives, although the time may come when they must make such an investigation as will result in the removal of public officers. They go as friends of the institutions and I believe that in that attitude they should always be welcomed.

DISCUSSION.

MR. HORTON, of Rhode Island—When we make our inspection we make a record of all complaints, whether justly or unjustly made, in a book that is kept in care of the Board of Charities and Correction. In some of the work it is a question whether there will be a proper recognition on the part of those who are in authority, such as superintendents and wardens. My own personal opinion of it is that we ought to recognize every one that is employed and who is in authority. If he is a warden of a prison, or if he is a superintendent of the insane or other departments, then it is important and right that the Board should keep in mind all the time that he is the one who is responsible for the management and control, of course always under the direction of the Board; at the same time his authority ought to be recognized, and there ought not to be any desire on the part of the Board to lessen his power in the performance of his duty as a superintendent or a manager.

MR. GATES, of California—It has been my pleasure during my lifetime to be Secretary of State Boards of Charities in two different states. My first experience was in Minnesota. I am now in California. I think the question we have before us this morning is one of the most vital to the State Board of Charities. We have had a good example this morning in the two first addresses of the two different methods of inspection. Mr. Johnson's system of inspection and Dr. Hill's system of inspection are different, and the question of one or the other depends entirely upon the individual who may be called upon to inspect. I think for myself I could not inspect with quite as much austerity as Dr. Hill does in New York. A Superintendent told me that when a former inspector came to inspect the county poorhouse, he hitched his horse to a fence down around a brow of a hill out of sight, and walked up to the county poorhouse getting up there about 5 o'clock, and the first question he asked was "What are you going to have for supper," and the superintendent told him it was none of his business. Now five years has elapsed since that inspection. That man has been in that county poorhouse all that time and he has never gotten over that first inspection, and he dislikes that inspector, had no confidence in him and in the manner in which he inspected. It was not the way I should go to inspect an institution. The first thing it seems to me is to get the confidence of the superintendents. You must recognize that every superintendent of an institution desires to do the right thing. You may find some things that are wrong, but when you find and state them to the superintendent, in a great many instances you will find him ready to correct the matter. While as inspector of an institution, I usually call for the supervisor, or the matron who has particular charge of the wards I want to go through, or if it is a state prison, I usually say to the superintendent, give me an officer to take me around, and he usually says: "Take Mr. Gates where he wants to go," and I start out with somebody. The reason for such inspection is that you get the confidence of the inmate as well. There should be a system by which any inmate could write and state any complaint he wishes to make. Any inmate of our State Hospitals who has a complaint to make may put it in writing and these letters are not opened by anyone but the person for whom they are intended.

The State Board of Charities and Correction represents the state in its official capacity. The people cannot visit the institutions for which they pay their taxes, and therefore the State Board takes their place. It stands between the people and the management of the institutions. I find no trouble in getting the confidence of the superintendents of the institutions if they are satisfied that I am acting for the interests of all.

MR. AMOS W. BUTLER, Indianapolis—It is the custom in our state, in inspecting the prisons, for a representative of the board to visit the cell houses

in the evening and carefully go through them, giving every prisoner an opportunity to speak privately, without any officer being present, on any matter concerning him, and if the matter takes any time give him an opportunity to come to the office for an interview without any officers being present. Another point which is very helpful to us in our work is that each superintendent of each institution is, by special direction of the Governor, asked to report any accident to any inmate or officer or employee, or anything unusual in connection with the institution to the Board of State Charities, and if the Board thinks it necessary for an investigation to be made of the institution or of that particular matter, it may be done at once. If the matter is urgent, report can be made by telegraph.

There are a number of those who are interested in State Boards of Control and State Boards of Charities, who feel that some effort ought to be made to secure the attendance of all of such Boards at the National Conference. I should like to propose that those who are here, who are interested in that subject, should ask the chairman of this session to appoint a committee of which he himself should be chairman, representing both boards of control, boards of state charities and institution boards, to address a letter to the boards of the various states calling their attention to the value of this conference.*

Miss Curtis, of Boston—It seems to me that in the last few years of the conference, the work of the state boards has not been appreciated as it ought to be, that it has not occupied the time and place in the conference that it ought to occupy. I believe we ought to do something to increase the interest of these boards in the conference. Many of those who come to the conference are largely interested in that kind of work, they are increasing in a large number of states, and we ought to do something to create an interest and to increase the effectiveness of state boards.

Mr. R. W. Hill—For a number of years past the work represented by the State Boards has not figured very largely in the program. If there is any one interest which is vital it is that represented by the State Boards of the various states, for all other forms of charity are under their supervision. I think the method suggested by our good friend from Indiana, is a good one. At the Conference at Buffalo next year, I think this committee should be able to induce a representation from every State Board in the country, not only from the State Boards, but from other parties who are interested in charity.

After some further debate it was agreed that the representatives of the State Boards who were present should dine together with the intention of informal conversation on the matter of interesting the State Boards.

MEMORANDUM ON VAGRANCY

BY ORLANDO F. LEWIS, OF NEW YORK

The movement for a National Vagrancy Committee, started at Minneapolis in June, 1907, was checked by the difficulty of financing the Committee's work. The hard times of the fall and

*See the appointment of committee on page 465.

winter of 1907-1908, while indicating that the work of such a National Vagrancy Committee would be particularly timely and important, were inopportune for raising money, nor was it possible to finance the work of the Committee by other means. In several states, the discussion of vagrancy at the National Conference led to increased attention to vagrancy laws and conditions. In New York state a bill was drafted providing for the establishment of a compulsory labor colony with indeterminate sentence and outdoor work. The bill was drafted late in the session of the legislature, and was not presented in time to receive attention. It will, however, furnish an opportunity for propaganda during the coming year.

The condition of unemployment prevailing during the winter of 1907-1908, has drawn public attention generally to the vagrant problem, which is seen more clearly to differentiate itself from that of the idle workmen, who have been represented by hundreds of thousands of men in large cities during this last winter. The treatment of unemployment is closely connected with the treatment of vagrancy, but the conditions and problems are different. It is but justice to the unemployed workmen that vagrancy conditions should be far better known and remedied in order to reduce the confusion that exists in the public mind, through which the workman out of employment and the vagrant are often considered identical. The remarkable amount of interest aroused in the vagrancy question last summer as the result of widespread notices in the press, brought out the noticeable unanimity in the belief of editors, that present vagrancy conditions must not continue to exist. The year has proved the necessity of concerted movement to improve vagrancy conditions.

Needy Families
Their Homes and Neighborhoods

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY MRS. JOHN M. GLENN, CHAIRMAN

THE WORKING FORCE OF SOCIETIES FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY

PART I

THE CALL FOR WORKERS IN THE SOUTH

Ever since 1893, when before the International Conference of Charities and Correction, Miss Anna L. Dawes made an address on the "Need of Training Schools for a New Profession," emphasis has been recurrently laid at the meetings of our Conference on the importance of definite training for our work. These papers* are as suggestive to the newly enlisted now as when they were first read and as important to those who wish to measure the opportunities of the profession.

At the same International Conference another note was sounded, however. Miss Florence Nightingale in speaking to a specific group, the nurses, emphasized the danger there might be in considering their work as a profession rather than as a calling. Her appeal, made in behalf of a common humanity by a woman of worldwide experience to women, possibly, of restricted spheres, is what the chairman of the Committee on Needy Families, a southern woman, speaking among southern people, in a southern city, wishes to emphasize.

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*Sociology in Institutions of Learning—Edited by Amos G. Warner, I. C. C. C. 1893.
Instruction in Sociology in Institutions of Learning—Prof. Daniel Fulmer, N. C. C. 1894, p. 67.
Sociology in Schools and Colleges—Prof. H. H. Powers, N. C. C. 1895, p. 122.
The Relation of Universities to Charity and Reformatory Work—Prof. Wm. H. Brewer, N. C. C. 1895, p. 143.
The Need of a Training School in Applied Philanthropy—M. E. Richmond, N. C. C. 1897, p. 181.
Present Opportunities for Training in Charitable Work—Jeffrey R. Brackett, N. C. C. 1901, p. 289.
The Worker: Purpose and Preparation—Jeffrey R. Brackett, N. C. C. 1904, p. 1.
Training for Social Workers—Prof. Graham Taylor, N. C. C. 1905, p. 436.
Training of Social Workers—Jeffrey R. Brackett, N. C. C. 1906, p. 445.

Have we in the South realized the measure of our responsibility to the field of social service, have we grasped the ennobling opportunity it offers? Dr. Alderman in an address made recently in New York spoke of how the South is giving definite expression to her moral enthusiasm, and no one who has considered the advances made by education in the South during the past years can question her readiness and ability to respond to community needs. But are we as yet offering our quota to the small army which is serving under the banner of trained service? No, we have not heeded the call because we are not conscious it has been sounded. Latent in the young men and women of the South is the ability for such service, and their's is the force to supply as large a proportion of efficient workers as may be found anywhere else in our country. There are those who are impatient to be at work, but who are ignorant of the social needs of their communities. They are, besides, hampered by an aristocratic conception which makes them question the dignity and beauty of a philanthropy which is salaried, and fail to realize that through help rendered to any part of a community the whole is served.

May we not consider it to be a fact that in any community where there is none, there a society for organizing charity needs to be established.

Is there any place in which rich and poor live separated by the wall of their physical, material, and spiritual differences, that there is not needed an agency which shall stand for the studying and removing as far as possible of such differences. Can any community which is developing slum areas in which are being bred human beings destined to be paupers, afford not to organize to remove such contamination?

It is not easy to organize a society in a community which has not realized that there is a need of such organization. There must be a small nucleus of adherents, but one person fired with missionary zeal and armed with some facts as to accomplishments elsewhere, can serve to rally a group. For those who heed the call to enter the field there is a growing literature*. The secretary of the Department for the Extension of Organized Charity is ready to answer definite questions and to give definite

*See especially Charity Organization in the Smaller Cities, A. W. McDougall, N. C. C. 1907, p. 368.

advice. No one need feel isolated in starting in the work, for there are many who are ready to give aid who have also had to combat a sense of isolation and of self-distrust. With the spirit of co-operation, with faith in one's mission, and reverence for whatever valuable individual work is being already done in the community, one can make good. It is not a business enterprise but a campaign of education which is being undertaken, and it has as watchwords, learn, watch, teach. Learn, to begin with, through the experiences of other societies, through mistakes and successes, through conferences, state and national, through criticisms. Watch for opportunities to advance, for occasions to correct misapprehensions, for times to withdraw from a field already covered. Teach through small gatherings and by contact with many different interests, but chiefly through doing effectively the specific work of dealing with individuals in need.

There will be a struggle to secure means and workers, but the fight is won if there be a capable person with the "sanctified sporting instinct" to wage it.

We must turn to the church to help us make the appeal sound. The church needs to have the young people arouse themselves to social usefulness. It must strengthen its own hold through an aroused social consciousness. The church can show the dignity and the varied opportunity of the call. Is there an effort emphasized in the conference which does not lay stress on the need here in the South for young people to prepare themselves for service. Factory inspectors, probation and school attendance officers, superintendents of institutions for the defective, delinquent and dependent, visitors to the homes of the needy, district nurses, settlement residents, each has a field, each field calls for service.

There are mute workers; they must be found. Means are available, if they be called for with persistency.

PART II

THE GROWTH OF THE FORCE AT WORK

The members of the Committee severally express their belief that distinct progress is being made both in the quantity and quality of our force. In his presidential address to the conference in 1904, Mr. Brackett spoke specifically of the scale of salaries and of the part the schools of philanthropy were taking

in enrolling workers. This brief report will, therefore, not attempt to add to what has been already written on the subject of salaries and on methods and opportunities of training. It will attempt to answer in a general way certain questions which it seems pertinent to ask.

I. Is there a growing demand for trained workers by the communities in which there are well established societies? If so, are such communities ready to make salaries more adequate?

The consensus of opinion is that there is an increased demand for capable workers, and that the readiness with which increased cost is met in some places is noteworthy. San Francisco, as a result of the higher standard of pay set by the fire relief work, is able "to get people of real ability and good general education, people who readily adapt themselves to social work." From the North and Middle West comes the assertion that a better grade of workers is now demanded and obtained, and that the demand is stimulated by similar efforts made by such agencies as the settlements and juvenile courts. A southern worker emphasizes the fact that there is an appreciable growth in the recognition of the value of trained service, but that as yet the attitude toward it is not well defined, and that there is confusion in the public mind as to the distinction between office and salary cost. The secretary of a society in an Eastern city answers the question clearly as follows:

> "We believe that an appreciable and growing part of the community does demand trained workers in order to reach the needs of families, and is ready to pay more adequately for their services. We have added to our permanent force lately some more competent people than our trustees formerly thought necessary, and have also increased within a year the maximum salary of our district visitors. The settlements also are using more trained workers and are paying them better salaries. We have done some effective educational work in inviting men and women of influence in the community to attend meetings of our district visitors. We find that such meetings give them a better conception, than any amount of literature, of the high class of skill required to do our work. We have also found lecture courses of value. We have conducted one for the past two winters, with a small membership fee, and have succeeded in enrolling as members some of the thinking people of the city. The enlistment of volunteer workers not only gives an opportunity of educating the persons enlisted, but goes further

through the influence which they themselves exert. We have also found the case system of relief (involving contributions for special families at stated intervals, with reports to the contributor monthly) of great value in educating people to the real nature of our work. Finally, literature is immensely helpful, if it takes the proper point of view. We have tried this year, with unexpected success, to reach the ordinary man in the street with our literature, telling him just what our work is. We have had two principles in mind; first, that we have an effective system to handle charity; and second, that it is sympathetically administered and accomplishes humane results. This latter point we have emphasized by a number of concrete illustrations, using them upon every occasion."

Another member of the committee, who has had experience in a number of different cities, writes:

"Certainly in some places boards of trustees evince a growing appreciation of the need of good workers. Salaries have increased but not sufficiently so as yet. The education of the community may be furthered by following the Washington plan of making a continuous newspaper and pamphlet campaign on personal service, its cost and its results. Another specific method is to divide the speaking before church and other societies, so that it may be done by agents and assistant agents as well as by general officers. Let the people see more of the subordinates. One very successful plan I saw followed in securing small contributions in the churches of a certain district in Chicago was to take a case record, summarize all that was done, estimate time cost, turn this into money cost of personal service, and then contrast it with what the same amount of alms giving would have done. There are a class of cases where this is a most impressive sort of illustration.

"When new boards are approached rightly they will often quite readily raise their original estimate for a salary. Wherever there are business men on the board, there seems to be a growing tendency to insist on trained workers. I believe that as general secretaries help in the field work in their respective districts, they take to heart the fact that sometimes the easiest thing to do is to induce the managers to pay larger salaries."

II. Does the supply of capable persons ready to engage in the work increase in proportion to the demand? And is the pay a determining factor?

The opinion of the Committee is that the demand for workers is greater than the supply. A southern member expresses the

belief that as yet the question of adequacy or inadequacy of pay is not a determining factor, because the charitable are not as yet aroused to an appreciation of the dignity and importance of the service. There must be enlisted a group of workers to educate their communities through the agency of effective work.

As has been already stated, in San Francisco higher pay has raised the quantity as well as the quality of the supply, and the point of view that the rate of pay affects the supply is corroborated by a volunteer who has had experience as chairman of a district in an eastern city:

> "I have felt that the pay of the trained workers was too small to encourage persons who were obliged to make their own living to engage in charity organization society work. There is very little danger of ever getting the salaries so large that people will engage in the work for the salary itself and there is danger with the small salaries, 1, that the agents will not get the proper bodily care to do the most efficient work; 2, that people not obliged to earn their living will take the places and in many cases not look on their work as a life work, seriously, but will always be amateurs. So to encourage applicants, I think a 'living' salary and prospects of increased usefulness should be offered."

The following statements come from secretaries, and though there is much similarity in the points of view, the reiteration is convincing and the shades of difference suggestive:

> "There is an increasing number of persons ready to take up social work and the number will steadily increase even if the pay is not made more adequate. Social work will never, however, have the standing it ought, until the public is willing to pay as much for preventive work with needy families as it is willing to pay our judges for measuring out punishment to those who have violated our laws."

> "There is an increasing number of people, men and women, ready to be engaged, but the supply is not commensurate with the demand. The small pay affects seriously the number available. As steps to increase the supply, I suggest, 1, college courses of a practical nature; 2, suggested reading to and addresses and essays by high school students; 3, an effective propaganda carried on among the more promising volunteers who have enlisted for purely volunteer services, but who have the qualifications for and may be given an impulse to do paid work."

> "It must be remembered that the work requires exceptional qualities so that there has to be a selection made which

is more rigorous than in other social work. We have not sufficiently shown the work in all its importance."

"I believe that the demand for trained workers is growing, and that the best way to stimulate it is by improving the supply. In this case more than in any other known to me the supply creates the demand. The work that the trained worker does *under conditions that make trained work possible* wins its way almost inevitably. Directors of other societies want some of that kind of work; contributors to other charities want the same. The demand thus created inevitably increases the supply. As soon as charities begin bidding against each other for the trained worker who is worth while, salaries go up, but it is the trained worker himself, and more especially the trained worker with the missionary spirit who is willing to accept difficult conditions, that creates this demand.

"Many steps may be suggested to increase the supply of workers capable of receiving training. The one that occurs to me as most likely to bring the type that we want is the appeal to the missionary spirit. I believe that we do not make this appeal effectively enough or constantly enough. We have as clear a message as the Student Volunteer movement, if we knew how to give it voice. In our fear of exaggeration and sentimentality we go too often to the other extreme and give second-rate reasons for doing first-rate things. Medical science has won in this generation a large measure of devotion; religion has won it; social service is beginning to win it, but we hesitate too often to make the highest possible appeal. This is not a plea for small salaries and hard conditions. Every paid worker in our field who is at all worth having does an enormous amount of work that he is not paid for, no matter what his salary may be."

The responsibility of increasing the supply of efficient workers rests primarily with the older societies. As is shown in the above citations the success of the campaign will depend on a dual effort being made, i. e., to enlist both volunteer and paid workers. The latter may be obtained more often, as suggested, by a flank movement than by a direct attack. A professor of economics in one of our large universities said recently that charity organization society work has a remarkably cumulative effect. For several years he withstood the efforts persistently made to draw him into service, but now that he has enrolled himself as a volunteer, he has as chairman of his district carried into district work all the members of his post graduate class. Through his interest in case work he has been brought

to realize the importance of enforcing child labor laws and so is assuming a directing part in the campaign for effective enforcement of such laws in his state. He dates the beginning of his and his students' interest to a meeting held more than a year previous at the house of one of the managers of the society.

If we believe that one of the broadly educational forces in this country is the organization of societies to study and relieve individual need, to co-ordinate philanthropic effort, and to use accumulating data as the basis for well planned and persistently enforced preventive measures, it is our duty to plan deliberately to increase the number of those who will accept service. It is, also, a duty to take a census from time to time of our losses or gains, so as to strengthen our weak spots and prepare for further advances.

III. How seriously do our societies take the problem of training for district work?

This question has called forth such an answer as that "the training is through the work itself." The societies have not as a rule laid sufficient stress on the allowance of a definite period of time for preparatory work. The answers of three secretaries, who have had varied experience and whose length of service qualifies them to speak comprehendingly, are:

> "We have no definite program of training to prepare workers, except to put our district visitors in training under the instruction of one of our oldest district visitors. Every society should have a comprehensive system of training for new workers. It ought to involve adequate instruction in the principles of relief, with a definite relation of the instruction to concrete problems in the routine work of the society."
>
> "Not a definite general plan but an individual plan was taken up when any really promising person was enlisted. For instance, a young college woman from the West came to the society. She had promise and her training was varied. For one year she was investigator only, having no case responsibility. In the second year she became assistant. Then she was expected to follow her treatment out to the end. She was given the more difficult visits to make, going to natural sources of relief. In another year she became agent and was immediately 'broken in' in securing money on the case system plan. She was also instructed in the details of the general office system. She had also, of course, training in enlisting volunteers."

"Even in this busy winter the new workers have been encouraged in the weekly class to illustrate each point by their own case work. I go over their own first interviews, consider with them the causes of distress in the families they have investigated and treated, try to arrive at the principles of co-operation in the same way, and give them in addition a number of specimen case records from other cities. This training extends over the winter and spring months. Those who take it successfully are pushed as rapidly as possible into positions of responsibility, though it is seldom, now, that anyone is given charge of a district without at least a full year's practical experience, more often two years."

The report made at this conference by the Field Secretary on the case records of different societies proves that as yet we have not acquired sufficient technique in the investigation of individual need and its treatment to make us satisfied with our methods of training. The schools are prepared to give a definite amount of theoretical preparation and to use established societies for field work, but each society should, itself, definitely determine what its own workers-in-training require, and should protect itself, through them, by not prematurely placing the responsibility of carrying district organization.

If our societies could hold separate funds as scholarships for agents-in-training, so that boards of management might discriminate surely between the cost of training and the cost of placing assistants in the field, there might be a better safeguarding of workers during a period of tutelage.

IV. What are the requisite qualifications of a worker?

Some emphasis has been laid on qualification in the first part of this report, but the testimony of some of the members of the Committee is enlightening. "A level, normal view of life" is emphasized, also, that the attitude of a worker should not be one of "strained hopefulness which is as great an obstacle to successful accomplishments as gloom," also that there should be an "honest interest in our neighbor and the recognition of individual temperament." That he should have "a knack of keeping other people busy without giving offense," we might accept as cardinal.

The following three summaries express the points of view of two secretaries and of an active volunteer who has had large executive experience:

"Culture, sympathy, tact, a balanced mind and one open to conviction, common sense, patience, a controlled tongue, executive force, and good health."

"The requisite qualifications for a social worker are, practical common sense, a sense of humor, a healthy body, a healthy spirit, resourcefulness, adaptability, a personality that can be felt, and a possession of quiet force."

"Interest in the work, that rare quality called common sense, and tact with business ability, i. e., logical order of doing work."

Cannot one see the difficulty of circulating our coin, which on the obverse carries its motto of 'unsatisfied demand' and on the reverse 'the fineness of the supply demanded?' But did noble service ever demand less, and is not the crown of our appeal this very aim to reach the high-minded!

V. Does the quality of our force grow finer?

The collective answer is Yes! And this answer comes with peculiar assurance after this winter of stress due to unemployment. Three specific statements come from secretaries:

"It is hard to judge when one stands so close to it, but on the whole I think the quality of the force grows finer. If there is any one test that we apply more than another, I believe it is the test of a worker's ability to get other people to do social work well rather than the ability to do it well herself."

"We hope that the quality of our force grows better and that our case work becomes more adequate. I am sure that our hold on volunteers grows stronger, and this winter has been a tremendous help to us in this last regard."

"I feel that the longer the work goes on, the finer is the quality done and the more adequate the treatment given needy families as well as the stronger the hold upon the community."

VI. Does the tendency to overwork become greater or less?

The answers call for consideration. A physician, who has had experience as chairman of a district, writes:

"I do not believe there is such a thing as overwork, i. e., if the society regulate the hours during which an agent shall be busy with the work of the society, and regulate them wisely; if further, the society be not falsely economical in vacations, allowing possibly two periods of one week during the year and one of three or four weeks in summer there should be no possibility of overwork. One cannot do in a moderate day enough work of the mixed type of work indoors and out—head and foot—to break him or her down.

Breakdowns come from worries and carrying the problems of the work 'home nights.' Oftentimes personal worries, perhaps as to the expense of living compared to salary, etc., or family worries come into the case. But I do not believe that in a well regulated day, as to length of hours, number of hours, etc., it is possible for anyone to overwork. He can't do enough work in the time to hurt him. He may worry himself sick because some one over him has asked him to do the impossible, but the things that tell on him are the undone things not the work he does. This is not guess work, it's my opinion formed from personal experience, of 10-hour days as a manual laborer in lumber yards, of 8-12 hour days in newspaper work (quite comparable in some departments to charity organization society work in the relation of mental and physical requirements); of 8 a. m.-9 p. m. as cash boy in stores, and a variety of other experiences—bank clerk, 6 hours—and in some of these with a monotony of routine more wearing than the variety of charity organization society work.

"Consequently you see I blame breakdowns on unintelligent central offices, which worry agents by excessive demands, varieties of book-keeping, fussy reports, etc., which leave a heavy burden of undone things on the mind of the workers."

Two secretaries express opinions which are supplementary:

"The tendency to overwork is greater than it used to be. I think this is because our facilities have not kept pace with our conception of our problems. It seems to me to go without saying, that overwork robs a society of realizing some of its best possibilities through the forced withdrawal of broken down workers. This it seems to me makes imperative the education of the community toward more trained workers and better pay for them."

"The tendency to overwork must be continually struggled against. The finer grade of the force has increased the danger and it has made representations to the board for increased force even stronger."

A third secretary points out the false economy in overwork:

"The tendency to overwork is somewhat less with us than it used to be. We do our very best to discourage overtime work. When we find that people are working at night or on Sunday, we confer with them at once to see what form of extra help would make this less necessary. During my first three years here we all did a great deal of night work. The more we did of it the more thoroughly convinced I became that it was a bad investment, that, at whatever extra effort

to raise money we provided additional help, the extra effort should be made."

Overwork may be a sign of lack of self-control, and as such it has robbed the field of valuable workers. The charity worker, himself, has got to learn that overwork is a vice not a virtue, that it is a way of robbing a chosen profession of prospective usefulness, and as such is as distinctive a wrong committed to the society as it would be to accept pay for half-hearted work.

VII. (The final question.) Do the older societies feel a responsibility to the newer societies?

There is a distinct consciousness of the interdependence of our societies and of the fact that we must be prepared to respond generously when called upon to pass on our trained workers and to receive pupils to train for other societies. As yet, however, the force of different societies is not sufficient to make it practicable that there should be a free give and take. The stimulation of the national spirit is dependent on the readiness of the right kind of recruits to be enlisted.

Specific opinions come in the following quotations from three secretaries, the last, our Field Secretary:

"I fear that we are a good deal more willing to train workers sent to us than to pass on trained workers that we already have, though these latter are given every opportunity to hear of offers from other places and to make their own choice."

"I do not know whether large societies feel a responsibility towards smaller societies or not. The engagement of a field secretary for Charities and the Commons would seem to be an indirect evidence that they do. I don't think we are ready to train workers sent us from other cities, expecting them to go back to work in other cities. I do believe, however, that no society ought to urge a new worker to stay on its force, no matter how short a time he may have been there or how much effort may have been put on his training, if he has an opportunity to do larger work elsewhere."

"I am proud to write as former assistant secretary of the Brooklyn society that the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities has always felt responsibility towards the smaller societies as well as towards its workers. When we could do no better for them we helped them into more responsible places elsewhere. While there, I suggested to one young woman that she apply for a place I had heard about and that she knew nothing of. It was obtained for her. This has been true in all grades from assistant secretary down. The dog in the

> manger policy is distinctly not the attitude of Brooklyn and has never been, I believe. It has always been ready to train people, and expects many of them to go to other places."

We all know how generously New York, Boston and Chicago, not to mention other societies, have responded to the call to supply other societies with trained agents.

The showing made by this report calls for the waging of a more sustained fight to strengthen our force. We do not with sufficient vigor build on our gains. We do not adequately safeguard our force against overstrain, we do not with a broad spirit recognize the national character of our campaign.

> "We do not," to quote again one of our secretaries, "make sufficiently clear the point of connection between the general plan of reform and the individual instance to which it may be applied. Who makes the pipe connection and turns on the light? The trained worker who is not afraid of the individual case and who knows how to handle it with thoroughness and an intelligent appreciation of its relation to the large social issues. Who keeps the light burning? The social worker who knows how to transmit the experience thus gained to all she comes in contact with who have the smallest glimmering of a desire to do good in the world."

It is because we as a Committee do believe that ours is a force that can serve as a power to make connections and to turn on light, which will illumine dark places, that we call imperatively for the enlarging of our force.

THE RELATION OF THE CHURCH TO THE SOCIAL WORKER

BY HERBERT WELCH, PRESIDENT OHIO WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, PRESIDENT METHODIST FEDERATION FOR SOCIAL SERVICE

No argument shall be here presented to prove the existence of a real and intimate relation between works of charity and reform on the one side and on the other the church and the religion for which the church stands. Rather, the allowed time shall be given to pointing out how that relation should manifest itself.

First, then, the church should recognize clearly and kindly its own offspring. Too often social workers have been made to

feel that their labors lacked the immediate and hearty sanction of religion—that the church has regarded itself as organized solely for the conduct of worship, the preservation of doctrine, the mutual service and improvement of its membership (a body selected from the general community), the winning of men out of the community into that selected body by evangelism—and that philanthropy could at best be grudgingly given an incidental place, the position of a tolerated Cinderella at the family fireside.

Worse still, for the one who has sought to go behind remedy to prevention, and not simply to ameliorate the conditions of the wretched, but to change radically, or to abolish those conditions, there has been not seldom the glance of suspicion, if not the disposition to disown this child of the family altogether.

In a word, the church—not the church ideal, but the church practical, not the church universal, but the church local (and in many localities)—has chosen to deal with only a part of man's life, the great part undoubtedly, but a part which can not be severed from the rest, and after all only a part. "Save men's souls and the rest will take care of itself," it has been somewhat crudely said. "A revival of religion settles all social problems," another puts it. But when one comes to analyze the situation, it is evident that the salvation of the soul and the revival of religion have to do with the conquest of sin in an individual or a community; and that most sins are social sins. The manifestation of the evil will which is the root of sin is chiefly manward not Godward. Now religion must deal with the evil all along the line of its development—with its root in the will, with its branches in the outward manifestation, with its fruit in the resulting conditions.

The individual is so entangled with the lives of others, past and present, that his single will does not control by any means all of his own life conditions and acts. He is the product, first, of his own will, and second, of his heredity and environment. Religion has commonly addressed itself to the first and ignored the second. The first is primary and pre-eminent; there can be no Kingdom of God without it. But there can be no complete Kingdom of God with nothing but it. There must be, as Professor Earp has recently told us, "first, the ideal man in society;

second, ideal laws and precepts for the government of human conduct in social relations; third, ideal forms of social organization to make these laws and precepts effective; fourth, an ideal society toward which humanity as a whole is progressing, expressed in the ideal of the Kingdom of God." Is the individual will, rectified and invigorated by religion, enough by itself? How many generations does it take to make the perfect gentleman? What sort of surroundings make the ideal man impossible.

The church must seek the regeneration of society as well as of the individual. It is because it has not always done so that a Russian priest, Father Petroff, bitterly assails the church in all so-called Christian lands. There may be, he says, individual Christians, but there is no Christianity, no Christian government, neither a Christian society nor a Christian state. "History . . . never knew, nor does it now know, a monarch who could say, 'In my realm I established God's kingdom. My throne was the throne of God's justice." He quotes from the biography of Chrysostom: "Christianity conquered the world, and was amazed, not at the vastness of the victory, but at the pettiness of the results attained. Everything was subjugated, yet nothing was changed."

Things, as well as people, must be changed. And this is a part, an inseparable part, of the task of the church. The commandments of God are written not on two tables, but on one. The life that is truly religious must be as indivisible as the seamless coat of Christ—reverence for God and service for men are the warp and the woof of it.

If time would permit, the reasons for this might be enlarged upon. They can barely be suggested. For one thing, though the motive be the lowest, the church must face its social responsibility for its own salvation. If life means correspondence with environment, as the scientists tell us, an adaptation of the church's ministry to the conditions and needs of the day is obviously a necessity for its own vigorous continuance. In the providence of God—as we call natural law when applied to human history—the instrument which no longer fits the task is thrown aside. The social conscience developed by the church has not all remained within the church. By its consent the will of God for this gen-

eration is made known. If the church does not adjust itself to the new claims of God's will, God will, from the obedient, fashion a new church.

Again, the moral relations of physical conditions necessitate the church's attention to those conditions. The needless death of a poor trackwalker may mean the shame of his widow; filth in the streets may mean bereaved hearts and blighted homes; density of population may involve the disappearance of decency; no parks, no playgrounds, no museums, no wholesome amusements may mean crowded saloons, juvenile crime, burned out lives. If child labor stunts the joyfulness, the strength, the intelligence of those on whom the republic is to depend; if the cleanliness, the companionship, the food, and the reading in county jails are to affect the character of future free citizens, how can any right-minded men be indifferent to these conditions? Tennyson appealed to Christian humanitarianism when he wrote:

> "Is it well that while we range with Science, glorying in the Time,
> City children soak and blacken soul and sense in city slime?
> There among the glooming alleys Progress halts on palsied feet,
> Crime and hunger cast our maidens by the thousand on the street.
>
> "There the master scrimps his haggard seamstress of her daily bread;
> There a single sordid attic holds the living and the dead;
> There the smouldering fire of fever creeps across the rotted floor,
> And the crowded couch of incest in the warrens of the poor."

And Jack London, when he had dwelt with the *People of the Abyss* in East London, was right in his indignant cry: "Man cannot be worked worse than a horse is worked, and be housed and fed as a pig is housed and fed, and at the same time have clean and wholesome ideals and aspirations." For right character and conduct right conditions must be created.

Or again, if the church desires to gain a hearing for its spiritual message, it must often, not only abroad but at home, find an avenue of approach through humanitarian activity. To prove its unselfish sincerity, to gain the confidence of the alienated, to establish a friendly footing with the needy, there must be an appreciation of their difficulties and a genuine attempt to meet them on the plane of their recognized and pressing needs. The church which prays, like the little girl at night, "And I saw a poor, blind, ragged man on the street in the storm; but it's

none of our business, is it God?'' has no mandate for the masses in this day of grace and of want. Dr. John Watson may have gone—I think he did go—too far in urging the substitution of the sanitary inspector for the missioner to the slums; but the church of the future must have a place for the sanitary inspector as well as the missioner. ''The soul of all improvement is the improvement of the soul,'' it is said. And it is true. But a complete organism demands a body as well as a soul; and the body of improvement is the improvement of the body, the house, the wage, the opportunity.

But the supreme reason why the church should identify itself with all wise plans and movements for social betterment is none of these, which might seem to have some mixture of possible selfishness in them, but the sheer pity and desire for helpfulness which should move all genuine Christians—the impossibility of limiting love. Charity is by no means exclusively Christian. In other faiths is found regard for weakness and for want. Especially has Judaism taught justice and mercy, and encouraged a philanthropy which to-day has reached splendid proportions. But it is easy to believe that the great developments of modern altruism—including even those among the Hebrews—would have been impossible without the teaching and example of that greatest of Jews, who was also the Son of Man.

His conception of life was that it was all sacred, if the man would make it so. His ministry did not limit itself to the soul, but included the common wants and anxieties of the average life. His love caused Him to have compassion on hunger and weakness and disease and sadness as well as upon vice and crime and perplexity. The following of Him, the application of His spirit to the society of our day, will carry us far. If it is Christian to begin, it is Christian to finish. If it is Christian to be partial, it is Christian to be thorough. If it is Christian to remedy, it is Christian to prevent. If it is Christian to build hospitals, it is Christian to form anti-tuberculosis leagues. If it is Christian to feed the starving, it is Christian to dig canals which by irrigation will prevent famines. If it is Christian to demand legislation against the saloon, the brothel, the gambling-house, it is Christian to see to it that these laws are enforced. If it is Christian to cure children's diseases, it is Christian to clean the

streets and avert diseases. The church, with its great numbers. great wealth, great privileges, may be, should be the inspirer, the backer, the corrector of all social beneficence.

This, as will be readily seen, means not only an obligation upon the church, but an opportunity for the church. It is, of course, not to be a dictator in the realm of charity, too attached to its own traditions, too sure of its own ways, spurning the suggestions of sociology, psychology, ethnology, scientific charity. It is, not as a propagandist but as a minister, to join hands with all forces, avail itself of all knowledge and experience in this realm in which it is inspirer and helper.

At the same time, it has its own distinct contribution to make in the maintenance of an idealism which will be unsoiled and undiscouraged by all difficulty and all failure. It is to keep and to impart the pitiful and understanding spirit. It is to teach tender dealings with the faults of men, to encourage not sentimentality but the charity which "hopeth all things, believeth all things, endureth all things." It is to maintain such emphasis upon personal values as will prohibit classifying and dealing with men in masses, and regarding clients as "cases" rather than as *folks*. It is to insist upon that personal touch which will prevent scientific charity from becoming a hard and mechanical process. Lowell had in mind sound social teaching when he sang: "The gift without the giver is bare." But this personal touch has been difficult to maintain under modern conditions in many spheres. In industry the old friendly relation between employer and employe has largely gone, through consolidation into large enterprises, and through specialization not only in manual work but in superintendence. It tends to disappear in education with the growth of classes and universities; in foreign missions with the enlargement of societies and fields; in philanthropy with lengthening lists of needy cases and the better organization of the work. But the spirit of religion is so interfused with not only the missionary but the educational and industrial and philanthropic agencies of the day that the demand for the personal touch is finding its new methods. The social secretary in the factory, the special hospital officer for counsel and relief (as in Bellevue Hospital, New York), the direct pension (as in Buffalo), the friendly visitor everywhere, or, better, the

adoption of a family by a friendly family—these testify to the idealizing and humanizing influence under which the charities of to-day are guarded from coldness and from failure in their higher objects.

It would seem to be an appropriate function of religion thus to supply ideals and motive power, especially for work with the ungrateful and the unlovely. The life of the social worker with its constant exhalations of sympathy, will tend to dryness unless it is fed by secret springs, unless streams from those hills which the uplifted eyes behold shall water the plains of service. If the charity worker and the social reformer are to keep their work from turning cheap and confident and superficial; if their labor is not to degenerate into mere fussiness, if their efforts to uplift humanity are to have vitality and power; the church has a message and a work that are not to be despised.

Thus the church is not to secularize itself, but to spiritualize charity and reform. It may pioneer the way into new paths of social effort, then yield the leadership to other agencies. But its chief function shall be to permeate all social work with the religious spirit, to proclaim the supremacy of the spiritual over the physical, yet to give the physical its due place. It is to be the following of Him who healed as well as taught, who announced Himself as having a mission to the afflicted and the oppressed, who appealed to His works of charity as the very credentials of His divine origin. If a heathen could, because he was a man, claim that nothing human was foreign to him, much more shall the church, because it is Christian, embrace within its loving sympathy and support all that helps to better man. It stands for no class, but for all classes; not for the poor against the rich, but for poor and rich alike. It labors for that city of God which is to come, which is now coming, down from God out of heaven, and in which all things are to be made new. That city has physical beauty in shining streets and crystal water. But its chief glory is in the wiping away of all tears, the abolition of all crime, the end of all curse and oppression, because the men of God's city shall serve Him. In that city there is no temple. The church has blotted itself out by making the whole city the dwelling-place of the God of light. In its own disappearance it finds its labors fulfilled.

THE FAMILY AND THE SOCIAL WORKER

BY MISS M. E. RICHMOND, GENERAL SECRETARY, PHILADELPHIA SOCIETY FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY

You, who have come together at the end of a busy winter and during a period of financial depression to consider methods of charitable work, should greet with enthusiasm an institution that needs no subscription list for its support, no board of directors for its management. I refer, of course, to the institution of the family. Someone has called it "the first great practical syllogism, two premises and a conclusion—father, mother and child." There are those, I know, who rebel against the conception of the family as the great social unit, the fundamental social fact. There are those who feel that the family as a moulding and controlling factor in human affairs has had its day. They maintain that its form is largely fortuitous, depending not so much upon the nature of man as upon the nature of the food that he eats, the character of his occupation, etc. But the cock crows and the sun rises, and the connection between the two events is not always as intimate as the cock himself imagines. These disparaging views of the family, of its origin and its functions, will have their day and cease to be, while the family itself continues to be the pivotal institution around which our human destinies revolve.

This is mere commonplace, of course. The air itself is commonplace in the sense that it is everywhere, but when it is bad we become unpleasantly aware of it, as we do of contaminated family life. To all here present, however, the great formative influences, the processes that have made us what we are, have gone on within our own homes quite unconsciously, for the most part. The way in which each one of you has entered and will leave this church, your feeling about the place itself and its associations, the greater or less degree of tolerance with which you are listening to what I am saying this moment, what you will think about it afterwards, if you ever think about it at all, and what you will do about it—these things have been determined far more by the family into which you were born and in which you grew up than any single one of you has any concep-

tion of. I am making no wholesale claim for heredity as against environment in saying this, but I am making a claim for the overwhelming force of heredity *plus* the environment that we inherit.

Approaching my subject with these convictions, it naturally follows that I do not stand here to-night to plead with social workers to "do something" for the family. I plead rather, for the sake of the immediate ends we have in view—for the sake of the life, liberty and happiness of all the disadvantaged and oppressed—that we may see to it that the family "does something" for us. In other words, we can progress only a little way unless we learn to work at every turn *with* nature rather than against her. If we could once realize that, whatever else may fail or succeed—industrial systems, forms of government, societies, nations, races—that whatever may happen to these, the family will persist as long as there is human progress; if we could once grasp the fact that in the long view it is never family life which suffers, but that everything else suffers, including human beings, whenever its claims are ignored; if we could once fully realize this, then all of our work would take on a new dignity and significance.

Let me try to illustrate, not so much from the details of our charitable work as from current happenings in industry and education.

In one of the counties of a far southern state to which the railroad penetrated only a few years ago, it was found that men working on the farm at fifty cents a day were tempted away by the dollar a day of the railroad. Removed farther and farther from their families and homes, many of them have become what is locally called "quitters," or what we know as wife-deserters. On the face of it, this development of industry would seem to have been bad for family life, and incidentally it was, but I am not indulging in mere paradox when I maintain that in the long run, through the fact that it clearly was bad for the workmen, it was also bad for the railroad and for industry. Any form of industry that brings about such results is unstable in its organization and such instability implies loss and the waste that precedes inevitable reorganization.

We need renewed faith in certain very elementary things

at the moment. We need to look far enough ahead to see that no large industry which ignores the fundamental facts of family life can continue to prosper. Inevitably the reaction must come, its methods of employing and using labor must be reorganized. It would be no difficult matter to prove the short-sightedness of those industries which depend upon child labor, for instance, or of those others which deliberately seek to work a large number of adults for short season rather than a smaller number for a long season. The neglect to provide safety devices and other protections against industrial accident gives death his harvest of many thousands yearly in this country, and would seem on the face of it to be more destructive of family life than almost any other one factor in modern industry. But here again a larger view, a larger faith in the persistence of the family, ought to make it clear that industry itself must suffer. Whenever this faith, reasserting itself, recognizes the family as the fundamental social fact to which all other social facts must adjust themselves, industry either must break or must yield.

Industry is yielding reluctantly but inevitably in the matter of the hours of women's work. An English chaplain in the mill town of Preston noted half a century ago that infant mortality was reduced sixteen per cent. during a long cotton strike which kept the women operatives at home. Though the standard of living was materially lowered, probably, the chances of life were raised. But it was only a few months ago that our Supreme Court established the principle for all time, as we hope, that, in the interest of family life and public health, the hours of women's work may be regulated by statute. No gathering of those who love their fellowmen held in this year of grace should fail to give thanks for that decision. It marks the greatest single step yet taken in this country in a saner adjustment of claims as between industry and the family.

In education also, the adjustment needs to be made. Those who are shaping the school of to-day are realizing more and more that teacher and parent must co-operate in all educational plans. The problem of school feeding that has agitated England so much of late can be regarded as a school question and can ignominiously fail of solution, or it can be regarded as a family *and* school question, and on that basis can be solved. No

educational system can be successful which ignores the family. Family life will suffer undoubtedly from mistaken educational ideals, but, in the long run, the failure will be an educational failure.

Illustrations are everywhere, but I must hurry on to the one practical suggestion for social workers toward which this leads. It is unquestionably true that we may hinder for a little while the life of the family, we may contaminate it, we may reduce its effectiveness, we may break it up altogether here and there; and our social work has succeeded often in doing all of these things. The one practical suggestion that I can make to you is that you ransack all your work for a year, say, from top to bottom with reference to its influence upon the particular families from which your beneficiaries have come and to which they go. Examine every admission to your institution and every discharge from it, every item of the daily lives of its inmates, with reference to this central fact. Ask yourselves, Have we made this man a better or worse husband and father? Have we made this woman a better or worse wife and mother? Have we at least set plans in motion that will make the children better heads of families than their parents have been? Has the burden-bearing capacity of each one concerned been weakened or has it been strengthened by the way in which we have borne *our* burden of caring for him or for those who have a right to look to him for care? Whether you are dealing with infants in foundling asylums, or children in day nurseries, or the sick in hospital wards, or defectives in state institutions, or prisoners in their cells, or families fallen into distress, or the aged in homes, or the dead awaiting burial even—I care not what form of need or distress or weakness you are dealing with—you cannot afford to forget the family that looms forever in the background. The conditions of normal family life, and all the variations which you are forced to note therefrom—these two groups of contrasting facts bound the stage of your operations.

And all of our work both for children and for adults needs to be subjected to a far keener and more searching analysis from this point of view. One of the weakest spots in the administration of justice in America to-day is found in the absence of any

well-defined standard of parental responsibility, any minimum requirement below which no child's life shall be permitted to fall without prompt and effective interference. It is useless to expect the enforcement of such a standard on the part of magistrates and judges when social workers themselves are not agreed upon it. We need to secure such a standard for ourselves by a closer scrutiny of our own work, and then to educate the public up to it.

At the very moment that we are smugly saying to ourselves that we must never break up families, in that very moment we may be scattering the contagion of dismemberment far and wide. The worst things ever done to the family are done in the name of family life and ostensibly to perpetuate it. While we are arranging creches and school lunches, for instance, in order to make it easier for the woman of the normal family to become a breadwinner, we are building up family life with two fingers and tearing it down with eight.

At this point we need the trained worker for whom your chairman has been pleading. There is a great deal of sentimental and vague talk about the sacredness of the family. One may say very true things, moreover, and apply them very falsely. We need to go beneath the names of things, for not everything that calls itself a family is truly so. There are sham families, and unstable families, and broken families, and families (so-called) that are mere breeding places of vice and crime. The trained worker, instead of juggling with words, will deal clearly with facts and conditions; will strive to answer truthfully of each charitable act that it has allied itself with the forces that make for a deeper and stronger family life. One who recognizes this supreme obligation will work to break up sham families and will work to keep together real ones, and will do all this in the interests not so much of family life as in the clear recognition that only so and with the aid of family life may we accomplish any of the things that we have set out to accomplish for our human kind.

To such an one, the practical syllogism of father, mother and child becomes the symbol of everything humanity has dreamed of or striven for. The family is not merely a place where bodies are reared to maturity, where laborers are trained

for the industrial markets of the world, where freeborn men are prepared for the duties of citizenship, but it is the cradle of immortal souls, no less. Toward this, the ideal family, the approach is inevitable and overwhelming; none of us can delay it, none of us can hasten it very much. How glorious a thing to have helped its coming in ways however humble, and how pitiful a thing to have hindered its arrival by so much as a single day!

SELF-HELP IN THE HOME

BY REV. W. J. KERBY, PROF. OF SOCIOLOGY, CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Recognizing that self-help is best help, that the family as a social unit has a constitution, atmosphere and morale of its own, and that the family as a moral and social entity furnishes to the children as well as the parents, elements in development, not usually contributed as well by any other agency, I wish to ask whether or not any force toward reintegration of the needy family and toward self-help may be found in the principle or method of competition? In particular, if good housekeeping is an essential element in a home, can we improve housekeeping among needy families by organizing them into small competing groups?

My own views are not entirely formed, hence I advocate nothing more than the general plan, leaving to future discussion the discovery of any feature of it which may be of use to us in relief work.

In outline, the situation is as follows:

1st. The needy family is in a condition of material distress, of moral and social disintegration, of lack of outlook into a future, of depression coming from a sense of resourcelessness. Having no future with hopes and inspiration and their accompanying character influences; having practically no past, and lacking the character influences that a healthy past with sustaining traditions shows, the needy family is too often sadly disintegrated and hence difficult to deal with. The charity worker dwells in the future and draws standards from the future; the

needy family does not know any future. Too often then neither understands the other.

2nd. It is praiseworthy as well as necessary, to teach the needy family the love of fresh air, of neatness and order, intelligent care of children and judicious use of income. However, work along these lines avails but little unless the family is recreated; unless solidarity, the sense of unity, of a future, of common interests be awakened.

Assistance given to individual members will not accomplish this; one binding interest must be given toward which all cooperate and in whose outcome all are represented. It would seem that this might be done by establishing groups for competitive housekeeping.

3rd. A standard of cleanliness, neatness, of care of children, of intelligent use of income, of home amusements shared in by all of the family, might be set up. Toward the realization of that standard, the families might labor with the wise and friendly aid of those who are serving them. Prizes given need not be important or costly. Lesser values may stimulate the dormant energies of the needy.

4th. The plan is not costly nor intricate. It is elastic, lending itself to many forms.

5th. There are objections in the way, of course. In American families self-respect and love of privacy may be obstacles. The unideal character of competition, the well-known effects of it on winners and losers, merit serious consideration, but these do not necessarily condemn the plan.

6th. There are difficulties, too, but a difficulty is an opportunity rather than an objection. Classification of families; equalization in such varying circumstances as one finds among homes; lack of things in the home which make housekeeping possible; the patient, enduring attention of the charity worker needed to resist the utter stupidities of many poor in their homes; all of these are difficulties but not necessarily forbidding.

7th. To those who may doubt about the practicability of the plan, let me say that it has been in operation in Belgium with conspicuous success for many years. The work is under the patronage of the royal family. The distribution of prizes

is made occasion for gatherings of distinguished scholars, statesmen and philanthropists.

Allowing for all the doubts that we may raise and for the difficulties that undeniably lie in the way, it seems that the plan offers some hope of real aid in the work of reconstructing the needy family. Experienced social workers will quickly recognize the limitations under which such a plan must operate. It is not necessary to discuss them now. Once the thought is proposed, it must make its own way as conditions may allow.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN RELATION TO SOCIAL WELFARE

BY L. H. BAILEY, DIRECTOR OF N. Y. STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AT CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

(*Abstract.*)

We need to give as much attention to the social and economic welfare of the rural country as to similar questions of urban regions. Our studies of social questions have been confined very largely to congested populations, but these questions are just as important in communities of scattered homes as in cities and towns. Even the question of congestion of population is not a city problem alone. Part of the city population comes from the country and this movement may distress the country from under-populating it at the same time that it distresses the city from over-populating it. But even if city congestion were to come wholly from the city itself, it nevertheless would still affect the country, not only because some of the surplus might find its way into the country, but because all populations are inter-relating and inter-acting. While it is customary to divide human beings into city people and country people, all great human problems are fundamentally the same, differing chiefly in their phases and symptoms. There is a city phase and a country phase of every great question. The city phase has been studied with much care, and, therefore, we have come to think that social problems are city problems. But whatever vitally affects the city likewise in some degree affects the open

country. One of the great needs of the time in social studies is that we discover the rural country. There is a city phase or application and rural application to all questions of education, truancy, public health, pauperism, immigration, charities, correction, civic relations, labor, density of population, moral standards. We have made the serious mistake in treating some of these questions as separate problems for the city and the rural districts, largely, however, by disregarding the one. We are at this moment making the great mistake of considering agricultural education as a thing apart, whereas it is only a phase of education in general and cannot be isolated without leading us into serious error. The so-called rural question is not a new or a separate question, but only an overlooked or neglected question.

Economic and social questions are by no means problems of centralized communities. Every person, however isolated, is a fact; and he is a member of society even if he associates with no one but himself, even as every stone in a field is a fact although it may never be placed in a building. We are just beginning to realize that there is such a thing as rural economics. Until very recently, the writings in this field have been for the most part, in this country, a treatment of the subject from the old theoretical point of view, illustrated here and there with agricultural examples.

If these statements are sound, it follows that the country should not be exploited in the interest of the city. The country must be developed for itself and out of itself. There must be a country social order, as there is a city social order. One might think, from many current discussions, that the country exists for the convenience and benefit of the city, providing occupation for those who have failed to attach themselves in cities and an asylum for the undesirables. To some persons, the country question seems to be only a congeries of isolated problems of needy families and of vicious communities; but these are not country questions more than city questions. In either case, they are but symptoms. Want must be relieved and vice must be controlled. No small amount of the vice of the country districts is that which is forced out from the cities. Questionable road-houses and other resorts are mostly the result of the repre-

hensible policy of compelling this class of persons to "move on" rather than to meet the issue squarely within the city limits and solving it there. The open country has problems enough of its own without being obliged to receive the dump from cities.

What I have in mind is far more than the mere relief of symptoms here and there. I want to see the development of a virile and effective rural society; and I know that such a society can come only as the result of forces arising directly out of the country, as a natural expression of the country itself, not as a reflection or transplanting of city institutions. My city friends, for example, are proposing ways whereby country people may have entertainment, but they make the fundamental error of fashioning their schemes on city ways. The real countryman does not think of theaters and recitals and receptions and functions in the way that the city man does, and it is not at all necessary that he should. On the contrary, it is very important that he should not. The countryman needs more social life; but his entertainment and contentment must come largely out of his occupation and his contact with nature, not from mere extraneous attractions. Herein lies the root of my concern in nature-study and nature-sympathy; the countryman must be able to interest himself spiritually in his native environment as his chief resource of power and happiness.

RURAL NEEDS

Before we can intelligently discuss the remedies for the social ills of the open country, we must inventory the needs. These needs seem to fall chiefly into five great groups, which I will briefly state.

1. The need of greater technical knowledge of agriculture. This knowledge of discovery and teaching is being rapidly supplied by the experiment stations and colleges of agriculture. The knowledge that we already have is far in excess of the practice of it; this is necessarily true in any branch of human activity, but this does not argue against the necessity of still more knowledge. As much as we have learned, all the great fundamental problems of rational agriculture are yet unsolved, and many of them are not even explored. Great as our lack is in these directions, it is still greater in the social and co-operative lines;

the great country problems are now human rather than technically agricultural.

2. Lack of governmental protection, whereby the disabilities that are not a part of his business may be removed from the farmer. Governmental protection and control are least applicable and least effective in the farming country, and the farmer has more burdens to carry than those pertaining to the rearing of crops and animals and to the contest with climate and weather; some of these handicaps will be removed or their effects minimized in the future.

Corollary to this is the lack of any kind of organized supervision over country living. For example, there is no continuing oversight of public health in the farming country, except a more or less effective effort when communicable diseases break out.

The lack of attention to health regulations is little less than appalling in its consequences. The physicians in the farming country are general practitioners, commonly out of close touch with specialists and experts. Public health information is likely to be meagre. It is pitiable that so many of the good country population are lost from neglect, and antiquated treatment of disease. I have no means of knowing whether the country suffers more than the city in this particular regard; but well enforced sanitary regulations are powerful educators, and the country does not have the benefit of them to the same extent that the city has.

3. Lack of the co-operative spirit in business. The development of our rural country has proceeded on the basis of isolated occupancy of land, with the marked individualism that goes with it. Definite co-operation was not at first necessary; and what has once become an established order soon becomes tradition. It is not strange that farmers do not co-operate, but it is none the less important that they should do so. Any business co-operation brings about far-reaching social changes. This kind of co-operation will be forced in the near future, with the great changes that are arising in commercial affairs, but it needs to be started and fostered by some definite agency.

4. Absence of centers of interest in the localities, due to the rapid growth of towns and the direction of attention townward.

5. Lack of real personal initiative and enthusiasm; of gumption; of enterprise that gets things done. This is due to lack of contact with fellows, to the arrested development that results from individualism, and to the sterilization of rural institutions consequent on the removal of centers of interest to the towns. In the last analysis it is conditioned on the low earning power of the average farm.

REMEDIES

Only the most general suggestions can be given as to the remedies for the social shortcomings of the open country, but I think that it is fairly possible to indicate some useful points of view.

Of course, the fundamental corrective of it all is education, but we should indicate what the nature of this education should be. We much need to know how to use our increasing technical knowledge and to systematize it into practical ideals of personal living.

It is fundamentally important that we start with the proposition that farming people be kept on the land. The centers of interest should be established or re-established in the open country itself, not further concentrated in the town or city. It is easy to see how interest converges in the city or town. Markets are there; roads lead there; trolleys and telephones lead there; the best churches, schools and entertainments are there. Farming is a local business; it rests on a particular piece of land; if the farmer is to be effective he must be content in his locality. The development of living local interest is the real root of the rural social question. I will mention four groups of efforts that should operate toward this end.

(1) By developing local fact. A thorough-going survey of the exact agricultural status of every state should now be made, and it should be made by the state itself. Such an inquiry made carefully and without haste by men who are thoroughly well prepared, and continuing over a series of years, would give us the data for all future work with local problems. We must have the geographical facts. We are now lacking them. We talk largely at random. We must discover the factors that determine the production of crops and animals in the localities,

and the conditions that underlie and control the farm life. One part of this inquiry should consider the soil conditions. A study of these conditions involves a knowledge of the kinds, classification and distribution of the soils of the state and the relation of place and altitude to production of crops and live-stock; determination of the best drainage practices on various soil types; a study of the cultural experience and manurial needs as adapted to the types; and other questions in furtherance of surveys and investigations now generally under way. Such a survey of the state should be broad and general enough to consider the status of all the agricultural industries in the state, and it should also take cognizance of educational and social conditions.

(2) By developing the rural institutions. The great constructive movements of the time have passed these institutions by.

While there is no real decline or decadence in the occupation of agriculture, it is nevertheless true that the country institutions and affairs need radical redirection. The work may be done very largely through existing agencies or organizations. A new meaning must be given to societies. No society should be maintained merely for the purpose of entertainment, but it should have vital relation to the real affairs of the communities in which it is.

Every kind of organization that now exists in the open country, or which can be readily extended to the open country, may be made the means of carrying the gospel of co-operation, companionship and better farm life to the persons who live on the land. The number of such organizations and associations is surprisingly large, even not counting the technical agricultural societies and groups (which are really the most effective of all). It is not so necessary to organize new groups as it is to fertilize and redirect the old ones. Rural institutions ought to be effective because they are for the most part natural expressions of indigenous needs, the outcome of the community's work. Many of the city institutions are creations of some person's philosophy or the expression of some fad or fashion.

Let me enumerate some of the group-associations that might easily aid in the regeneration of country life if they were not so closely tied to their customs and traditions; the school; the

church; fraternal societies of all kinds; christian associations for men and women and for both; all singing schools, and musical clubs; reading clubs and library associations; women's clubs; historical societies; athletic organizations, and all groups that might develop the play spirit and revive the native games; local political organizations, that might give as much attention to developing or promoting the community as to putting some one in office; the good roads interest is now easy of organization and direction; banks might have relation to the welfare of the community as well as to themselves, as is shown by various European experience; chambers of commerce and business men's organizations in the smaller cities might extend their efforts beyond the corporation lines, associating the country merchants and traders with them; civic societies; improvement and art societies. In the way of economic group associations, the co-operative creamery may be cited as a representative example. In a dairy country, such an institution not only works an improvement in farm practice, but develops a market and meeting place in the neighborhood and thereby affords a most useful center of local interest.

(3) By developing applicable education. The older education, which even yet dominates in the open country, has little relation to living or to locality. We have begun with the remote, and often we have never reached the real environment of the pupil. The pupil's mind can be trained by means of the things that naturally condition his existence, at the same time that the work puts him into sympathy with his surroundings and enables him to understand them. If the affairs of life should be made the means of beginning and directing the training of the pupil, then it follows that nature-study and agriculture should dominate the rural school. The country life pursuits will never appeal to the farm youth as really worth the while until they are taught in schools and are thereby given the same dignity and importance as other subjects.

(4) By developing particular persons for special kinds of work. The failure of our fairest and most perfect plans traces itself to lack of good local leaders. In small towns and the open country there are club houses vacant or of no account because there is no one person to organize and energize.

In cities, great things are accomplished by settlements of one kind and another, something of the kind can be done in the country, but it will need to be in the nature of better examples of actual farming as a base, with the farmer taking a new kind of enthusiastic interest in all the public and organized affairs of his community. The greatest aid will probably come by means of individual effort rather than by large settlement organization. The farming people are characterized by individualism and they must be reached through individualism rather than through institutionalism. (The speaker suggested ways and means by which educated men and women might establish themselves as farmers, and while making a living from the land could conduct a kind of social effort such as is quite unknown in this country to-day.) There is great opportunity for young persons to fit themselves for this kind of work, developing leadership and serving their fellows without the handicap of over-organization, which is likely to be a serious drawback in the highly specialized work of the cities. Nowhere will the individuality of personal leadership count for so much as in the country.

It is important that the country work be founded on occupation (that is, on agriculture), since all country interests rest on occupation. That is to say, the good social worker should be a farmer, rather than a missionary, charity organizer, officer of correction, or philanthropist. It is not a question of slumming. The rural people are not lost; they need opportunity and leadership. So far as possible, the work should be established in real rural regions, outside the towns. The worker must be resident the year round, not migratory, and above all he should not be of the summer boarder class.

Inasmuch as personal leadership in country work must rest on a good foundation of agricultural knowledge, it follows that the best training place for this class of workers is the agricultural school and college. Heretofore, these institutions have devoted their attention chiefly to technical agricultural instruction, but they are now rapidly taking up the social and the larger economic phases of country life. From some of the colleges the young men and women go back to the country thoroughly alive to the necessity of organizing the social forces

there. The time cannot be far distant when there will be some kind of a voluntary association between the students of all agricultural colleges, looking to the elevation of agricultural communities as well as to the elevation of individual farmers.

RECOMMENDATIONS TO THIS CONFERENCE

I shall mention no specific things to be done, but indicate points of view to be established.

1. Extend your customary efforts to all people, irrespective of where they live, and let them apply equally everywhere. Recognize the fact that your work is broadly human.

2. Aim to create a public sentiment that shall aid in removing the disabilities under which the farmer works and that shall allow him his share of the benefits of the progress of the race.

3. Advise the organization of good public health supervision for both the people and their domestic animals. You should be cautioned, however, that this supervision should have due regard to existing rural conditions and not be imposed as a piece of theoretical legislation.

4. Endeavor to interest good countrymen in the work that you are doing, bringing them into your organizations, making them in effect your local agents and representatives; this is very much better than to attempt to reach the problem by merely sending persons into the country.

WASTE IN MOUNTAIN SETTLEMENT WORK

BY BRUCE R. PAYNE, UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

There are three distinct defects in the so-called mountain settlement work as now prosecuted along the Appalachian Highland. First, lack of co-operation between workers or promoters of these isolated stations in the mountains; second, lack of correlation of the enterprises with existing permanently organized institutions, e. g., state systems of education, state boards of charities, state boards of health, etc.; third, lack of

expert study of the social, industrial, educational and religious problems peculiar to mountain peoples in isolated communities.

The problem may be stated in terms of waste of educational, religious and economic energy. All waste is due to isolation of some sort. The only cure for isolation is administrative organization and co-operation.

To discuss the hindrances in order: Each denomination has its mission settlements. Sometimes several denominations are within the same mountain cove or valley. Frequently they are not on speaking terms, to say nothing of their holding business or educational conferences. Again a mile in the mountains is longer than many in the lowlands. Railroads, telephones, rural libraries and rural free deliveries have not yet pierced these valleys. The denominational feelings and the geographical barriers are two of the isolating influences between the workers of existing missions. One other hindering cause is lack of time, strength and money. Individuals are too busy, the feeling of immediate responsibility (whether real or imaginary) is too intense to allow the usual teacher or preacher to take time for consultation with neighbor fellow-craftsmen. Yet, similar institutional workers in the cities, in the public school systems, in medical associations, do find time in which to avoid the blindness of such rank empiricism. We forbid the pedagogical novice the privilege of experimenting upon our children, the graduate of the medical school must not discover by unguided experiment upon the constitution of his patient what his predecessors have already transmitted in published form. In contrast to such current practice the earnest mountain missionary is allowed to experiment, and learn by blundering (or never learn) what his neighbor beyond the opposite peak could have told him in fifteen minutes.

All of the causes of isolation are not to be charged to the mountain worker. Many of them he cannot overcome without outside aid. For example, it takes money to hold conferences, and to exploit by publicity. I know of no better cause in which we could spend money than in providing for conferences of those nearest to the load in this mountain work. The next result would be a more concrete and stirring publication of the conditions and remedies in such work to the rest of the

world. Then the whole problem would find its place in the body of our great social organism, from which it is now cut off. The public must supply the funds and the mountain workers must prove the worth of the whole mountain problem by a better organized method of exchanging experience and of publicity of these experiences.

The second point of failure is more important. There are certain well organized institutions whose support is permanent, whose machinery is tested yearly by the experience and criticism of thousands of experts, whose genius is directed toward the elimination of the waste of isolation; such, for instance, as the system of public education in any state. Criticise it as you will, it is the chosen agency for the education of the race. It will be in the business when all other agencies are moss-covered. If the mountain work is to be made permanent or efficient, there must be a closer correlation between each settlement and the state school system. These two forces are too shy of each other. A closer acquaintance would be mutually beneficial. The ordinary public school officer or teacher knows relatively nothing about the effective education of mountaineers. He suffers from too much uniformity, just as the settlement worker suffers from too little. The state must abandon its ordinary methods when it reaches the mountains, and it must usually adopt those which have been tried with success by the wisest and most experienced missionary. I know of public schools which could not make the required legal average of ten pupils under a public school teacher, which, when taken over by the settlement worker and given new matter and method, the one more practical and the other more human, soon had an average of forty pupils. This was done through the industrial education offered by the settlements, in contrast to the bookish tendency of the public educator.

On the other hand, the missionary must learn and be willing to make concessions for the sake of better organization. He must be a missionary to the public official as well as to the settlers. There should be discovered an intermediary agency between the two in order that the official may become enlightened as to better ways of working and the missionary as to better organization looking toward the spread of his influence and the

permanence of results. I think this can be done by the endeavor of the industrial school missionaries to provide native teachers for the public schools. Why, for instance, should not the Bishop Whittle School of Greene County, Virginia, do, through its industrial training classes, for the one room public school of the mountain section just what Hampton and Tuskegee are doing for the backward people of the colored communities. It is the graduates of these institutions who are silently and surely solving the negro problem. Is there to arise no similar interest in the practical solution of the isolated mountain white problem?

The mission of religious and philanthropical organizations in improving the home life, the intellectual life, the physical well-being of these remote communities is likely to pursue the same course it has taken in similar undertakings throughout the history of the race. This duty has been to inaugurate movements, to establish new institutions, to meet new needs, to blaze the way into unexplored forests, to teach the rest of the world how to proceed; then abandon to the regular forces the enterprises it has discovered for them and trained them for—philanthropy seeks other borderlands where new campfires must be built, new beacon lights kindled to beckon on the hosts who shall ultimately take the new territory as a permanent possession.

The misfortune in this and many other forms of social work is that those responsible for their promotion have too little time for reflection and those not responsible have not the inclination. We can never organize these undertakings so as to escape the leakage prevalent until a larger group of men study the questions both directly and comparatively. Why should the universities neglect the study of the social problems in the mountain settlements more than in the city settlements? If education is to direct itself to analysis of social structure and needs, why should this large aspect of our social organism, in this section at any rate, be omitted? What we need is a larger group of citizens well informed on this subject. They will then see the issue in its broader connection. The sympathy which college students, who become public leaders as a rule, could command for this work, the dignity which its study in the classes in sociology or economics would lend, are additional reasons why this complex question might well receive more expert

study than it does receive. There are many practical questions which must be considered in a large and unprejudiced way. For example, the entire rural life question is involved. Is it always true that we would have mountaineers remain in the mountains? In many cases it might be our Christian duty to remove them. Many such questions are not local, but have connection with higher problems. Further, it would be exceedingly profitable if the settlements could employ in each state a well trained traveling supervisor who could visit each mission and counsel with the workers, gathering and transmitting experience in his journeys.

The trained expert could free this entire question from a sort of sickly sentimentality which too often does the cause more harm than good. There are men of business sense who are alienated from the movement by a certain type of sentiment which does not appeal to them. Too often the advocate, by lack of expert ability, estranges friends rather than attaches them to his work. These are but a few of the illustrations which go to show how a provision for systematic study of the problem along with similar social questions would greatly affect the permanent development. I do not undertake to suggest all the methods of solution, but merely to state the need of better organization and more reflection and wider planning to avoid waste and to promote efficiency in this most difficult and neglected work.

DISCUSSION

DR. FRIZELL, of Hampton Institute, described what was being done in Virginia to develop agricultural life, especially the work of Mr. Sandy, of Berkville. He also spoke of the leagues that the women of Virginia are organizing to strengthen and stimulate the work of the schools.

MR. HUBBARD, of Cincinnati—Two years ago I met a young man who told me about his only brother who tried farming after graduating from college. At the end of a year he had lost $3,000, and was something of a laughing stock for his neighbors. But he heard of the Agricultural College at Purdue, Indiana, and went there to summer school for two weeks. He got some ideas, began to study further on the subject, and went back the next summer to attend the lectures. He became so enthusiastic that he got other farmers in his neighborhood to go with him to the farmers' institute, with the result that within a few years he increased the productiveness of the farm fifty per cent. He has also aroused his neighbors throughout the district, and showed them that they could make more money and have more conveniences and live better by doing their work scientifically.

MR. WAGNER, of Ohio—These farmers' institutes exist all over the country. They are here in the State of Virginia, and it is the duty of every one to give assistance to them. These boys when they come back from agricultural college will raise the standard of the neighborhood in which they live. In Piedmont Valley, here in this state, I saw farms, right within a radius of ten miles of this city of Richmond, that showed that there was a scientific mind back of them. I believe the mountain sides of Virginia could be made places of interest, and I believe the people of Virginia will do it.

MR. CARSTENS—I have had an opportunity during the last two years of my social work to get in close contact with the rural problem. Of about eight thousand children whose homes we looked into, two thousand lived in the country. Organization in rural districts for the improvement of country life is absolutely necessary for the saving of the needy families, and of the needy children. Out-door relief has been furnished in a good many communities without any investigation, sometimes just to tide them over into the next week's misery, or to bring about decadent conditions. The homes into which the workers of our society have been asked to go are often in needy condition because of the neglect of relatives and neighbors and church and school.

While the city and its congested districts need this work most, we also owe a duty to the rural districts where the degeneration is sometimes extreme. My view is possibly colored by the fact that we come in contact with the most degraded conditions, but we are working in both city and town, and have an opportunity to see that the greatest moral degeneracy is often found on the by-roads, off the main traveled roads of the country. The needy family in the country is sadly in need.

MR. DEVINE—A professor in Yale University has been quoted as saying that social betterment is not possible by conscious effort; that all improvement comes by unconscious effort, otherwise than that which is organized directly for the purpose. There is a great deal of falsehood in that doctrine, but there is some truth in it. A wise social organizer will put in motion a number of agencies and means for betterment which have not been consciously created for the purpose, but which are nevertheless being used by the social worker. The relief of distress due to vice and degeneracy that come from crowded conditions cannot be solved except as the community solves the problem of rural social economy. And I do not think that promise lies in the attempt to move bodily to the country all the people who are failures in the city. The putting together of the landless man and the manless land I look upon with misgiving, because of the fact that the individual who is a failure in the city, who has been born and brought up under city conditions, is not likely to make a successful farmer. His salvation does not lie in such a transfer. The solution is a more difficult process. We must see that the rural community itself may be made prosperous and successful, so that people who might be successful in the country will not go to the city where they necessarily become failures. We must make agriculture scientific and productive, and this is what the agricultural experiment stations and colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture and such agencies are helping to do. So we shall have first improved and scientific agriculture, second an improvement in social conditions of the rural communities, which many things that we have not created consciously for that purpose are helping along; third, and more important than either of the others, business education of the rural people that they may successfully market their products.

MR. VAN WAGENEN—I am a city man, so were my father and my grandfather. But I have a son who is a farmer and his greatest deprivation

has been the lack of social, religious and educational opportunities. He is a college bred young man, but he is in a district where the untoward conditions prevail of which we have heard here. Is it not possible to carry out the idea of the student volunteer movement in connection with our agricultural problem? Suppose some organization should start a center, from which could go some enthusiastic delegates into our agricultural colleges, and into other colleges from time to time, with the thought not only of agriculture as a science, an industry and a profession, but with the altruistic spirit of joining together the farmers and the farmers' wives in co-operative social work and who will carry with them the idea and the pledge of trying to sustain these organizations and developing and strengthening them all along the line. Is it not possible that such an organization might lead eventually to great changes in our rural districts?

Rev. J. P. Duffy, of Philadelphia—I represent the South. I have had four years' experience along the line of work that has been brought to our attention. Our problem is the isolated mountain regions of the South. I was in Central Tennessee as a minister and educator. I have visited homes where you would travel fifteen miles along some creek without seeing a house. I have preached in churches in those isolated mountain regions and have taught in the schools where they regarded it as a great privilege to attend for three or four months in the year. After living with these people, eating cornbread with them and suffering from dyspepsia through their bacon, I must say there is not a grander set anywhere on the earth than those people of those mountainous districts. There is a great scarcity of schools and churches and of social advantages. One of the great factors in the development of our Southland will be the transfusion of blood. There ought to be some agency that would unite the North and South not only along educational lines, but along social lines, and developing more effectually the resources of both sections of the country.

Miss Fannie Battle, of Nashville—We are interested in children's playgrounds. We have a fresh air camp seven miles from Nashville, where we take about three hundred children and fifty grown people at a time. I would like to hear more about playgrounds, and how they can be conducted efficiently.

Mr. Magruder—The suggestion has been made that a large source of help for these conditions would be in the rural church. The trouble with the country ministers is they don't know how to get at it. This conference has men and women in it who could go into theological seminaries and expound to the seminarians the social gospel and how to apply it in rural districts. In addition to that is it not possible for the agricultural schools to train young men, who are going to be farmers, in social ethics, so they can get the ministers together and show them things that they can do for the social uplift of the rural communities.

Mr. Eggleston—It seems to me that fifty per cent. of our money in country schools and colleges is wasted because we have lost sight of the fact that the school ought to be linked with the social life and economic interests of the community in which it is situated. Nine-tenths of the schools in Virginia in the country districts do not consciously have the remotest connection with the social and economic interests of the community in which they are. Haven't we brains enough to link the schools with the community? If we haven't, we ought to close up the schools and try something else. It is a most serious problem how to get our people to see that the school in order to develop the rural communities and their social life should be linked with those communities. What have we tried to do

to link the schools with every-day life? We are consolidating the schools. Last year we broke up five hundred one-room schools. We have merged them into central consolidated schools running from three to ten rooms. We have found it necessary to provide wagons to bring the children to school. We must get our people imbued with the thought that these consolidated country schools must be a vital part of the every-day life. Mr. Sandy, of whom Dr. Frizell spoke, is just an ordinary farmer, but he is in my opinion the leading educator of Virginia. We have read volumes on the subject of agriculture in schools, but Mr. Sandy believes the way to do a thing is to do it. He has appropriated a tract of land and taken the best teacher in a school, a young lady who has agreed to undertake the work under his direction, with forty or fifty children. They will work there all summer and next fall she will be their teacher of agriculture. We don't permit a country or village school in Virginia to have less than two acres of ground. We believe the playground is just as essential as any other part of the school. The children get more good from some of our playgrounds than from some of our schools. In many instances we rent additional grounds for school gardens and for agricultural features. We insist that wherever these consolidated schools are, that there should be a home, because we want a central meeting place for the country people, and believe the school house is the best place for that. We are attempting to link the community to the school, and the school to the community, by getting better school houses, putting libraries into the schools and having leagues, and we are organizing a lecture bureau. We will get the various state institutions to join together so we can procure the best lecturers.

MR. GREEN—If we could have some standard of decency among these neglected families in small places, we could soon reduce pauperism in country districts.

MRS. MUMFORD—The work of the leagues has been alluded to. The work we have done in Virginia may be helpful to some of you. We consider the schoolhouse the proper place in which to begin, when we go into country communities. Another question, how much is being done in pointing our young people in colleges and schools and in society to the country as a place for social service? We ought to have a student volunteer movement for this object in our seminaries and colleges and schools. The country affords opportunity not only for social service to these isolated people, but opportunity for individual growth. As Dr. Bailey says, there is no place where leadership has such a chance in this day and generation as in the country. We need city workers and we need country workers, too. But you go to a theological school and when they point out their brilliant boys they say, "He is going into a city." It's going to take more brilliant men to do the work in the country than the work in the city. We want our young women who have a passion for social service to see the constructive side of this work, which means not only the transformation of the neighborhood in which they go to live, but means their own personal growth through this service which is so stimulating to young people.

MR. NELSON—Why not steer the schools of the country toward the rural community instead of toward the high school and the university? I advise all my friends engaged in city charity work to turn their attention to the country. Of course, those who haven't the backbone and ability to make their living in the country, drift back to the city. But it is worth while for those who are helping people to get in the right way. In great industrial countries like England and Scotland everything is co-operation, and some of these concerns are making millions of profit. Denmark used to be

one of the poor little kingdoms of the world. Twenty-five years ago they began to get rich by starting co-operation creameries.

DR. BAILEY—A great deal of the difficulty comes from the fact that the decadent people have been pushed out into the country by the cities. You will generally find them just over the fringe, and the burden of taking care of them should be with the city people, whence they came. I am interested more directly in the development of the open country on an agricultural basis, and not merely in helping people here and there out of decadence or dependency. We must not approach this subject too much from the city point of view. We must not feel that because the city man finds his pleasure in entertainments, that the country man will do so. He should get his entertainment out of his intellectual occupation and in intercourse with nature. We cannot have the same kind of society interests in the country that we have in the city. A man must have a personal, intellectual interest in the problems among which he is living, and this must come from education and through nature studies and influences of this kind. Schools and colleges and universities should train persons for the open country. They should send the boys that come from farms back to their homes with a high ideal of country living. We had six hundred and fifty-two students this past year in the College of Agriculture which I represent, and we have organized them into a league, and they are all animated by this purpose. They are drilled in altruistic points just as much as they are drilled in chemistry and botany and zoology. Every one of these young men going back, whether from the city or country, is going back determined first, to make a living on the land, and second, to carry out the social and economic propaganda which you have here discussed. These agricultural colleges which are found in every state and territory of the union, hold the key to the situation. It is from them that the new energy is very largely to come.

HOW MAY WE INCREASE OUR STANDARD OF EFFICIENCY IN DEALING WITH NEEDY FAMILIES?

BY FRANCIS H. McLEAN, FIELD SECRETARY, CHARITIES EXTENSION DEPARTMENT

My analogy would be from baseball, which has more lessons for the charity worker than any other sport. What distinguishes the selected few, who become the aristocracy of the major baseball leagues? If one compares them with their fellows one finds no superiority in youth or wind, or strength or health. But if one has seen all the stages, has seen the varieties in that wonderful field of organized baseball the explanation is plain. The same motions, the same things to do at the same time, the philosophy of the game changes not. But the risers are those who possess mental adeptness and nerve. They are the

ones who, while developing a well-nigh perfect technique, are but considering that as a means to an end. They are the ones who begin to anticipate the probable, while their fellows are content to grapple with things as they come, and by-and-by they reach a higher stage with trained hands and heads, so that when they do anticipate the probable and something else comes they can so quickly recover themselves that they do not fail at the critical moment when parts of seconds count. When these young masters of the game play it, mental adeptness counts as much as brawn, and in the ultimate turns the scale; adeptness plus technique. Never forget the technique. The college boy has the adeptness sometimes, but the hard grinding technique he has not mastered, and so, while he thinks, his hands cut queer capers. Adeptness or quick adaptability plus technique plus nerve. I would wish that our investigations approached somewhere near the standard of excellence of major league baseball. For remember our pretensions, remember how we have been shouting it almost from the housetops, that now there would be demonstrations of real investigation. We have assumed that we had a message to deliver, a task to do, and have we delivered the message! Alas, not if that message is embodied in the records of some forty-five societies who were kind enough to send in records to the special committee of the Field Department. I know that you would not want that message repeated outside of the family circle. This is not a place to go into details of our weaknesses. It will do us no good to simply give you a dreary recital of what was discovered. Rather should we couch our inquiry in the terms of future possibilities. But because we do that let no one forget that a really serious situation was revealed by these records. One of two things we must do. We must build up a technique which we do not now have, or we must acknowledge that we are simply amateurs at the game, not professionals. I may frankly state that no member of the committee, which sat down one day last November to go over these records, had any idea that the ordinary run of records would be so weak.

What characterized many of the records was a masterly absence of anything resembling technique. I can conceive of some harassed agent or superintendent treating a case in a

hurry without any investigation. I did not expect to have such records sent to the committee for inspection. Beautiful thinking evidently applied, but it was all, all based on exparte statements and a worker's office or home impressions. That I take it is a cardinal sin in organized charity work. One of the points covered in the original schedule was the showing of the fallacy of first impressions, as contravened by the facts brought out during the investigation. In some of the records the contravening came, not as the result of the investigation, but of things which happened to be brought to the attention of the society; just happened in many cases, upsetting the plan of treatment entirely and wasting time and money spent in payment of salaries. This was a waste which in most cases would have been saved if there had been a reasonably complete investigation at the start.

It is well right here and now to state absolutely that any philosophy of treatment based upon impressions, superficially confirmed by appearances, is as bad as bad can be. It is the past that will tell us just how to take hold of the future, and nothing but the past will do it, and the past not viewed simply by one person, but by different people. This is axiomatic, and we shall gain in surety of touch according as we increase the number of our view points.

Let us assert then rather definitely what we believe is still a principle, though such belief has been weakened by a study of some of these records, with reference to ordinary investigations. I am not now referring to a few of the well established societies which are enabled to always visit all possible people for information in every case. They suffer from the other danger of too much technique overpowering deductive reasoning. But I am thinking of the smaller societies whose brave efforts in the face of many difficulties the Field Department as well as this section most cordially and heartily appreciates.

Unless we are to say that there is no such thing as the art of treatment, but simply the bathos of treatment, we must insist that treatment, to be called such, must be predicated on something more than the viewpoint of the family with the survey of the visitor. It must be a pretty stiff emergency to justify anything but emergency treatment being based on anything

less. And be sure that there is always the way of getting some other viewpoint.

Let us, then, pretty definitely recognize that nothing can be accomplished in the treatment of resident families, non-resident families we are not considering, without getting some view of the family from outside of themselves. This to apply to all conditions. It is a good safe rule to be never disregarded. We can throw away all nonsense about ability to read character, no one can do that, no matter what the novelists may tell us. The bonding companies rely upon history, history, history, and so must we. The minute we leave our deductive processes, fed by the information of more than one person or family, that moment we are wandering around in a morass.

The statement of this hoary principle seems to be required by the experiences which the committee went through. Surely we can all say that this commonest bit of technique may never be absent from our work.

In a pressing emergency the board should be appealed to for volunteers. If it is never possible for a general secretary to do this much, then it simply means there must be some extra help. If that cannot be furnished the society had better give up, or still better, raise more money. There is no doubt, however, that the extra visits can, in the great majority of cases, be covered if there is system in laying out the daily routes.

DISCRIMINATION

Discrimination in the making of visits is an art which is particularly valuable to the smaller societies, and which should be well cultivated. Ordinarily, following the analogies of the science of history, primary sources of information should be visited in reference to secondary sources. If it is impossible to cover every source of information then much depends upon the selections which are made. In a great majority of cases there should of course be consultation with relatives. That it seems to us is another matter of technique, which an examination of the cases sent to us indicates must be emphasized. Theoretically we cannot but assume that relatives should be first sought for information and advice of all kinds. Too often very little use has been made of them. Yet some cases in the

number received, and the experiences of a society like the Chicago Bureau of Charities, some of whose superintendents have been peculiarly successful in dealing with relatives, plainly show that practically the visits to them should precede everything else unless special reasons exist for a contrary course. No assumption is more dangerous than the one that such and such relatives are not worth while visiting. Of course, we are considering not so much the question of material relief in such cases, but the broader problems of treatment.

What we are trying to do is not to go over the well beaten ground to build up the science of investigation, but rather to demonstrate that certain things have been proven. The question now is how far are we going to allow ourselves to fall below a grade of investigation which will be efficient.

Of the primary sources, there should be grave reasons for *not* seeing the employers of either man or woman, or both. They have seen the bread winners of the family under working conditions, the hall marks of industrial efficiency must be obtained from them, no secondary sources will suffice. It is a question whether the mental and physical condition of the children should be in any instance gathered from the family alone, but that always, by letter or interview, the knowledge of the school teachers be obtained. There is nothing more stupid than to imagine that because a mother is a mother she has observed all the important things about her child. It often happens that the teacher has a clearer estimate *on some points at least.*

Leaving aside all other sources of information, taking into account nothing else, has a case been really investigated if these three primary sources of information, relatives, employers and school teachers at least, have not been approached. I refer to any family which is actually treated in any way, for in order to have intelligent treatment it is axiomatic that the condition of each member of the family, school child as well as bread winner, has to be known.

There is much more in the philosophy of primary sources which we should take to heart. Our attention has been called again and again in these and other records, to the loss of time and effort because of the acceptance of information at second

hand, with no attempt to go to the primary source. It is an economy rather than otherwise to do so. A case treated by one of the best societies in the country, was mistreated for years because a mother's statement regarding her sister was not immediately followed up by a visit upon the sister and a keeping in touch with her thereafter. If we could only eliminate the last shred of that medieval tradition that investigation is an attempt to find out where people are lying. It is an attempt to find the truth, and so surely as we stop at half truths we fail in our trust, just as a court would fail if it only heard the prosecution or the defense. One cannot hope to apply the rules of evidence, one would not wish to do so, but certainly this one principle we should hold clear and dear, the principle of history as well as of law, that the nearer you get to the source of an action or word the truer will be your picture of the actuality. It cannot be said that the use of primary sources, when easily reachable, is a characteristic of many of the cases which the committee has gone over.

DEFINITENESS AND THE THEME

We have said the masters of baseball possess not only the technique, but also a marked, trained, marvelous alertness of mind which enables them to figure out the probable and yet so trained that if the probable does not come, the recovery is instant and the nervous system immediately co-ordinated and thrown into another line of action. In the profession of treatment the same qualities are required. To illustrate, many of the cases which came to the committee did not lack at all in thoroughness of investigation. Every possible source of information was approached, and yet one reached the end with a sense of disappointment. That there was a lot of information, no one could gainsay. The closely typewritten pages were a rebuke to any accusation of lack of bulk. Yet what did the record lack, it lacked the breath of life, and what was that? A sane, clear, alert recognition of what the whole problem was likely to be, and therefore what were the most significant and important things to be learned. And at the same time an instantaneous ability to work right over into a new field in case the unexpected was revealed at any stage. There is such a thing as a direct com-

pact investigation and a wobbling comprehensive investigation. This means the ability to find out the one or two or three relatives who would be most helpful at the start and not simply visit others who will only corroborate. It means picking out just those individual people who will best know some one phase of the situation, and from whom valuable information may be the most easily obtained.

Definiteness and the theme; we must give a subject to our sentence before we begin to spread it in our records. We must feel very early in the game the theme running through, borrowing from the field of classical music. That we must dignify our own work with, having a similar fundamental thread of definiteness and unity. Especially so as the temptation is, in view of the many sidedness in each family life which comes before us, to diversify the minor problems of the family, but we must never forget, we must never be without, the major one. We must not lose our theme as it has been lost in some of these records. Because one keeps fussing and fussing on with a case for months at a time, is in itself not prima facie evidence that we are actually treating it. Let us try to cut down the simple fussing and waste of time which it involves. These records have again and again plainly indicated superficiality, where thorough investigation and treatment, while apparently more costly at the start, would have really been more economical, and also they have indicated, as we said before an occasional profuseness of words as valuable as a broken prism because of their diffuseness.

THE MORALITY OF THE RECORD CARD

We may be asked "all this is very beautiful, but what in plain every day English are we to do?" It is because there are one or two things to do that it has not seemed to be worth while to give citations from the records on the points covered.

In the first place, I would present the record card as a moral issue, or rather its use as an ethical consideration, and its non use as being immoral, nay as absolutely dishonest.

A well, intelligently filled record opens up to the true master in his field, endless possibilities, endless opportunities. To the unskilled it may appear to be an ill digested mass of

statistics. That is the difference between expertness and amateurishness. But certainly the amateur is right if the cards simply adorn the records as prettily written effusions, and no attempt is made to follow up the clues and promises which they offer. On the other hand nothing more surely circumscribes one's thoughts and plans regarding a family than a well-nigh barren record card. As a general secretary said to me but a few days ago: "McLean have you ever stopped to fully realize just what a good record card, intelligently used, means to the welfare of a family?" That is the question which we must ask ourselves. I call to mind a case in which an aged mother had not been adequately provided for, for several months, whilst an attempt was made to have her keep a boarding house, the burden of which proved too much for her. The reason? Because there had not been an immediate following up of clues regarding relatives so that a son (full brother to the daughter she was living with) who was willing to provide for her, was not discovered until much later. The first thing which we must instill into our new workers, assuming that all the old workers have it, is an enthusiasm for the record card, intelligently used. It is the visible sign of intelligent technique, and at the same time means so much more when we take the ground firmly that there is morality in it, and that its non use is dishonest if we claim to be real helpers of families. If we pretend to be students of a science and workers at an art, let us in all conscience begin to take pride in the implements with which we work, and realize their importance. Let us gently correct the erring one who says "I don't pay much attention to records, the work with the families themselves is what counts, and what I try to do." For if that is her course she will never be anything but a bungler, she cannot work intelligently with the families if that is her attitude. She is still a representative of the typical old fashioned charity which organized charity was supposed to supplant.

DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT CARDS

A growing realization of the need of an aid which would impart definiteness to records and give one a clear idea of not only the main problem, but all of the subsidiary problems, caused the

Field Department last fall to send out to the societies in the exchange branch of the department, a proposed form to be known as a diagnosis and treatment sheet. A study of the records last winter has convinced the field secretary that these sheets are an absolute necessity, and should be used by all the societies. Even the very best of the records would have been much clearer to the reader with such a sheet. In many cases, apparent lapses in treatment would have been revealed to the societies, if they had attempted to fill out the blanks.

In brief the diagnosis sheets provide for a separate summarizing of the environmental, physical, moral, mental and temperamental condition of the head of the family, the home keeper and as many of the children as may be necessary. In addition there is a place for the recording of industrial efficiency. Underneath there is room for the entering of the general plan of treatment, changes in the plan being recorded in red ink. Also in the appropriate columns there is room for the entering of any specific treatment for one or more individual members of the family. When one of these blanks is properly filled out one has a better, clearer, more correct picture of the family than a thousand pages of record could possibly give. More too, the records themselves become clear to the committees and workers. There is no doubt of their use giving force and directness to secondary investigations and to treatment. The Providence Society has adopted the blank for cases which will require extended treatment. The Atlanta Associated Charities has adopted the plan for all cases. This was only done a few weeks ago.

The use of the diagnosis and treatment sheets must be watched. We must see that simple impressions do not find their way to them, unless in penciled form so that they can be erased when investigation shows the real conditions. I have seen workers with a perfect wealth of description, who could write up a family in beautiful shape, so that it actually lived before your eyes. The only trouble was that half of what appeared real was false, and most strange catastrophes overtook some of these families, to one's utter disillusionment. But again it is the old cry, it is history we want. Facts, facts, facts. But in their marshalling, in the thought and discussion which must fol-

low that process, in the careful systemization of the best treatment, in this our diagram cards are of vital and far reaching importance.

These then are our suggestions:

1. First, the axiom. All treatment must be based upon knowledge, real knowledge of the facts. No reading of character is safe and no conclusions based upon interviews and visits in a home alone.

2. In gathering that information it is well to bear in mind the distinction between primary and secondary sources of information as the art of history has it, and to use discrimination in visiting, taking primary sources as much as possible. I believe the school of philanthropy should have at least one lecture in their course on the technique of history.

3. Discrimination may be used, wherever we cannot make all the visits that we would like, providing we have a fairly clear conception of the apparent problem and are seeking for ways of helpfulness.

4. We must early find our theme as 3, above, indicates, and must find a center, not necessarily simple, but complex, upon which our information may hinge. With this must ever go the ability to change, to alter one's basis at lightning speed, as the master of baseball does, if the facts command us to do it. This indeed illustrates the need of going to the primary sources of information.

5. An acknowledgment of the morality of the record card and its intelligent use as a necessity, if our investigation would be what it should be.

6. If we would have definiteness, clearness and sensible system in our treatment we must have something resembling diagnosis and treatment sheets which will describe the personalities and environmental conditions of every single member of the family, together with the treatment planned. Even the societies with most efficient district committees have signally failed in their records, and I for one am not prepared to say that many a bad step in treatment is not traceable to this lack in systemization.

THE SMALLER SOCIETIES

My last word would be one of encouragement and of counsel, at the same time, to the smaller societies. No one better than I realizes the handicaps under which you labor. I have been there, not only in my duties as field secretary, but before as one time secretary of a newly organized society. I simply will not, and have never given, my assent to the proposition that relatively you could give such extended attention to single cases as is possible in one of the larger societies. The proportion of the social surplus which, under the best conditions, will come to you, varies, not absolutely with the size of that surplus, but in a diminishing geometrical ratio. I believe, however, that we can build up a system with the least amount of effort and the greatest amount of efficiency. In that task I ask you to command the services of the Field Department and of all the workers who co-operate through it. We are with you heart and soul in presenting in the bulletin and otherwise any problems of investigation which you may have. At the same time we believe that if you study the recommendations herein made you will find that they may serve towards greater economy of time.

And finally we would make one special recommendation to you. Fasten upon any young college woman or college man who comes to live in your city. Make them help as volunteers in enlarging the scope of your case work by helping you in it, as they can, providing they have come from a center of learning where social science has been presented to them. And if you find any benighted institution which has presented no social science let the Field Department know of it, and in divers and underground ways we will attempt its reformation.

For no one like the thinking college man or woman begins to possess a realization of the relativity of human virtue and intelligence; begins to so clearly appreciate the magnificence of the family struggles of the less fortunately circumstanced. Indeed the bonds of sympathy between the college bred man or woman or the broadly bred man or woman and the C. O. S. family are very close and intimate for their standards of measurements are the same, and their standards are not materialistic.

So dignify more and more your investigations, making them more nearly vibrant with the pulse of human life, more true, more helpful, more inspiring toward the best development, so that, as in Boston for instance, men who were once drunkards are helping in a manly, not namby-pamby way, to pull other men out of the slough of despond.

Public Health

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY WALTER LINDLEY, M. D., LL. D., LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA, CHAIRMAN

THE NATION'S OUTLOOK FOR HEALTH

No statement of the nation's outlook for health would be complete that did not mention the diseases conveyed by domestic animals and vermin.

RATS AND FLEAS

The economical damage by rats is immense. Rats destroy grain and other products in England and Germany alone to the amount of $150,000,000.00 per year. On both land and sea they are a terrible tax upon man. This evening we are considering health and disease and it is the relation of rats to these that particularly interests us.

The rat is subject to bubonic plague and, through the flea, and directly, is the chief, but by no means the only, disseminator of this disease. The rat has the disease and when it dies and gets cold the flea searches for warmer quarters than the rat's body, finds a live man and bites him. The rat's dead body decays and becomes a part of the dust of the street and the coolie becomes infected through his toes and feet.

Is the bubonic plague a terrible disease? In 1896 there were 1,704 deaths in India from the plague. The death rate increased until in 1904 the mortality from the plague in India was 1,022,000 and the total number of deaths in India from the plague from 1896 to 1906 inclusive was 4,410,000; an average of over 400,000 per annum. To add to the rat menace is the fact that it is so prolific. The rat begins to bear young when six months old and one authority says that rats multiply at the rate of 800 descendants yearly from one pair. Besides the usual means of destroying rats, a bacteriological preparation known as "ratin" has been prepared in a German laboratory. Societies for the eradication of the rat have been organized in various European cities; the latest being in Copenhagen and London.

The bed-bug plays an humble part in carrying the plague, and must undoubtedly admit its inferiority to the flea.

THE FLY

The fly is another menace to health. It carries typhoid and tubercle bacilli and other infectious bacteria and distributes them over the food. One investigator found 100,000 bacteria on the legs of one fly. Dr. Daniel D. Jackson says the common house fly causes 7,000 deaths annually in New York city. So do not sit complacently by while the fly walks over the sugar that you will soon spread over your breakfast food or strawberries. This is an adulteration that the Pure Food and Pure Drug Law cannot reach. Fight the fly personally, with screens and fly paper, and have the food they desire as inaccessible to them as possible. That great breeding place for flies—the manure pile— is, we are glad to say, being supplanted by the automobile.

THE MOSQUITO

The mosquito is the carrier, the distributor, the Pandarus of Elephantiasis (filariasis,) Malaria and Yellow Fever. As the war of extermination against the mosquito progresses, the death rate from Malaria and Yellow Fever declines. Havana—where Dr. Walter Reed fell a martyr—under the vigorous American administration, is an example of what can be done toward wiping out yellow fever. The elimination of the mosquito does the work. The United States census tells us that in the year ending May 31, 1889, there were in this country 18,594 deaths from malaria and that during the next ten years the annual mortality from that cause was only a little more than one-third as great. Dr. Edward A. Ayers, of New York, advocates the drainage of all swamps and the use of kerosene, tersely putting it as follows: "A slap at the mosquito for the moment, kerosene for the week, ditching for a season, but reclamation for all time." In the far west the desert must be reclaimed by putting water on it, and thousands of acres of fertile fields and fruitful orchards are refreshing the eye where the pioneer of '49 and his faithful horses and cattle, after vainly following the mirage, died from thirst. This is important, but from the sanitarian's viewpoint, the reclamation of the swamps that is progressing in the Middle West, the East and the South is doubly important. Here is a place for the exercise of governmental paternalism.

THE DOG

The dog is susceptible to many diseases. The two we, as sanitarians, are interested in are hydrophobia and tapeworm. It is of the latter that I speak. The dog eats raw meat, gets the tapeworm in its larval state from the beef, and within the dog it develops the adult worm. From intimate association the eggs of this worm infect the child or the man. In Lapland, where dogs and men live in close intimacy, tapeworm is very common. One form of tapeworm is found only in children, due to the fact that dogs caress them with their tongues.

THE CAT

The cat is the greatest menace of all domestic animals. As a cat fancier said to me a few days ago, "there is scarcely any disease that the cat does not have." Diphtheria and ringworm are the two diseases that it ordinarily disseminates. One cat has been known to distribute diphtheria among the children of a whole neighborhood. Ringworm, the scourge of the school and the orphan asylum, is usually introduced by the cat. Under my own observation recently a man and his wife, both well-known artists, became infected with ringworm and discovered that it was from a beautiful cat of which they were very fond. The children in three neighboring families contracted the disease from this same cat. In fact, the only innocuous domestic pet is the Teddy Bear. If you must have a dog or cat in the house, you should realize that to keep it clean and well it requires more attention than is necessary for a child. One mother understood this. She said to her maid:

"Mary, have you a bottle of milk for baby and a bottle for Fido?"

"Yes, ma'am," answered Mary.

"Sterilize Fido's," said fond mama.

BIER'S HYPERAEMIA

Two therapeutic advances I will now mention. Bier's Hyperaemia is a method of treatment of rheumatism and other diseases of the joints. It has been developed during the last 20 years by Prof. August Bier, now of Berlin, formerly of Bonn. The results seem almost miraculous and, as this method

becomes universally known, it will make a marked reduction in the number of hopeless cripples. This hyperaemia is produced in three ways: First, by hot air, by putting the affected joint, or, preferably, the whole body, leaving the head exposed, in what is practically a bake oven. The temperature is raised from 250 degrees Fahrenheit to 510 degrees Fahrenheit. Second, by using elastic bandages around the affected joints. Third, by use of suction cups over the affected joints.

VACCINE THERAPY

The other great advance is in Vaccine Therapy. Vaccination against smallpox was proclaimed by Jenner 110 years ago; while Pasteur presented us with vaccination for hydrophobia just a quarter of a century ago. Principally through work done in the laboratory of Sir Almroth Wright, of London, we have, in the last few years, learned that other infections as well, especially those caused by the bacteria that produce pus, may be successfully treated by vaccines. We are all infected every day but we have within us cells known as phagocytes that maintain a constant warfare against the invading bacteria and these defenders are generally victorious.

Besides these phagocytes, there are in the blood substances called opsonins that unite with infectious bacteria and make them more susceptible to the protecting phagocytes. Where these opsonins are deficient, say in a case of puerperal fever, or any other virulent pus forming disease, a pure culture of this organism is obtained from a patient suffering from the disease that it is desired to cure. Frequently and preferably this culture is taken from the same patient. These cultures are grown in the laboratory, then killed by heat, diluted to the proper dosage and injected back into the system of that patient, reinforcing the opsonins and making the virulent bacteria weak, and vulnerable to the phagocytes. The theory of this is that you put back into the system a weak poison as a stimulant, just as small doses of other poisons act as stimulants; take strychnia as an example of this in the vegetable world. The results of this vaccine therapy are often so wonderful, the recovery of the patient so prompt, that it is almost incredible. Every municipality should have a laboratory where this opsonic work could

be carried on without cost to the indigent patient, and where these vaccines could always be found fresh.

CEREBRO-SPINAL MENINGITIS

The most hopeless, deadliest and most terrible disease we have to contend with in America is Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis. Encouraging reports are now coming in of the use of an antiserum being made by Dr. Simon Flexner, working in the Rockefeller Institute, New York. The latest summary shows 130 cases of Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis treated by Flexner's antiserum with 95 recoveries.

THE TEMPERANCE MOVEMENT

Now a word about the great temperance movement that is agitating the civilized world. The Japanese say a man takes a drink, then the drink takes a drink, then the drink takes the man. A realization of the injury that alcoholic beverages is doing to their respective nations has led the scientists and publicists of France, England and Germany to join in a propaganda against King Alcohol, whose throne is now tottering.

It is in the United States that the temperance movement is seen in its most aggressive form. Over forty million people in this country, that is, one-half our population, are today living under prohibition laws. Why? Not because the majority of us are at heart prohibitionists, but because the saloon element combines with the most undesirable people of the city and forms a political organization that has become insolent, arrogant and sinister. This has gone on to such an extent that a majority of those desiring good government seem to have decided that the only way to secure decent administration of municipal affairs is to eliminate the saloon, and it looks as though the silent-ballot would do the work. The city of Los Angeles is wedded to high license. The number of saloons is limited to 200, each one paying a license of $900 per year. Riverside, Redlands, Pasadena and several other Southern California cities have had prohibition from the date of their organization into municipalities. Adolph Busch, of Anheuser fame, has a beautiful home surrounded by a tropical park in prohibition Pasadena.

The cherry looks nice in the bottom of a glass and there is something very attractive in the vivid green of the mint as it projects from a long goblet, but it looks as though we were soon going to have an opportunity to renew the experience of our boyhood days, when our principal beverages were sassafras tea and butter-milk.

CANCER

Just a word about cancer. In 1890 there were 9,410 deaths from cancer in the United States; ten years later—1900—there were 17,296 deaths from cancer in this country, an increase of 12.1 deaths per 100,000 population. In England and Wales in 1899 the death rate from cancer showed an increase of 15.3 per 100,000 over the rate of 1890. Reports from all over the world indicate a steady increase.

Aside from the knife in early cases, all remedies tried have thus far proved of no avail. Recent investigations point to the fact that cancer is decidedly infectious and that this disease is carried both by dust and water. Epidemics of cancer have been reported in different localities within the last few years. This field is awaiting the advent of a new Jenner, Pasteur or Koch. How glorious it would be if he prove to be an American.

PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS

Pulmonary tuberculosis, the disease which, in 1890 and for decades before, had shown the greatest death rate in America of any disease, in 1900 fell to second place. In 1890 in the United States out of every 100,000 population there were 245.4 deaths; while in 1900 there were 191.9 deaths from consumption in every 100,000 population. This shows a decrease in the annual death rate of 53.5 to every 100,000 of population. Just as I was leaving home for this conference, a summary of the United States Census Bureau on this subject reached me, which shows that the death rate from tuberculosis in the United States for the year 1906, had been reduced to 145 per 100,000. The death rate in England and Wales from tuberculosis in 1838 was 399 for each 100,000 of population; in 1882 it had fallen to 180 for each 100,000 of population while in 1906 it had fallen to 115 deaths from consumption in each 100,000

of population. Take heart, my friends; intelligence, diligence and altruism will surely conquer this deadly foe of the human race. Great things were expected from tuberculin, which Koch announced in 1890. Modified in various ways, it is being used today in the treatment of tuberculosis by many earnest optimists, but it has had little to do with the remarkable reduction in the death rate. Tuberculin will yet be modified and improved by the untiring research that is now going on in our laboratories, co-ordinating with the clinical work in our sanatoriums and dispensaries. Every incipient case of consumption should for at least a few weeks go to a sanatorium, as a child goes to school, and learn. After once learning then this patient can arrange for his own care in his own home. In case of dire poverty, of course, the patient should remain in the sanatorium until cured. Fresh, pure air; sunshine, eggs and milk, together with the use of tuberculin in suitable cases, form the basis of all successful treatment of tuberculosis. There is one book—just a little book—that costs 15 cents a copy by the hundred, entitled "Tuberculosis, Disease of the Masses, How to Combat It," that should be a text book in every grammar school and every night school. It should be on all public reading tables. This work is by Dr. S. A. Knopf, of New York, and has been translated in 22 different languages. It is a great missionary.

THE PLAYGROUND MOVEMENT

A great factor for health, a comparatively new feature in our city life, is the Playground Movement. This educated, intelligently directed movement has cost in New York city during the last eight years, about $15,000,000.00. In Chicago during the last three years, $11,000,000.00. Boston was the leader in this work and has an ideal system of playgrounds, municipal baths and gymnasiums. Every other progressive city in the United States is following in the wake of these leaders. Through pride in my own city I would like to point in detail to the work done under the direction of the Los Angeles Playground Commission, of which the able president is a woman. This Playground movement is doing more than all drugs in the fight against tuberculosis. It begins at the beginning—with the

child—teaches it chest expansion, and makes it a lover of fresh air and an out-door life.

THE NATIONAL FOREST

The National Playground is our National Forest Reserve, and will prove a most potent factor for health. The power of the president was never used with more far-reaching results for our good, than in placing our great but rapidly decreasing forests under the permanent control of the national government. We have in the United States 150 National Forests containing 142,-972,855 acres; in Alaska 4,909,880 acres; in Porto Rico 65,950 acres. President Harrison in 1891 created the first one, the Yellowstone Park. The National Forest regulates water flow and thus holds the soil, and furnishes timber and wood for legitimate and reasonable purposes. The forage and the timber of the National Forest are to be used but with regard for to-morrow. Nationalizing these vast mountain regions makes and keeps them far more valuable, simply by using them in a care-ful way, with a thought for the future. These forest lands will be managed so as to produce the most valuable crops of timber and wood, year after year, without interruption. Protecting the forests and the undergrowth insures a steady flow of water for irrigation in the otherwise arid tributary valleys.

If the mountain side has been made barren by ax and fire, the water runs down its bare, hard surface with a rush, all at once, ruthlessly flooding valleys below. But the protected forests cover—the trees, brush, grass, weeds and vegetable litter —act together as a great regulator, bringing about a steady flow of water. Preserve them as great playgrounds for the people. Encourage families and schools to camp a part of each year by the glorious mountain stream under the firs and alders. These National recreation grounds will be a force in fighting disease. Health is to be found in the heights among the pines and the cedars. Let us keep them forever free for all the people.

THE TRAINED NURSE

In 1853 Florence Nightingale in London gave an intelligent impetus to trained nursing that has been felt all over the civilized world. In 1873 Bellevue Hospital, New York, sent

out the first class of trained nurses graduated in America. In 1880 there were in the United States 15 schools for nurses and 300 pupil nurses. In 1907 there were 862 schools for nurses in this country and nearly 20,000 pupil nurses. This is another great factor that is telling for good health. The graduate nurse with her education and her sanitary conscience is a harbinger of right living. If she does happen to marry soon after she has received her diploma, she is ideally equipped for wifehood and motherhood and is a source of comfort and helpful wisdom to all her neighbors. This is truly woman's profession and the time will yet come when all wise parents will want their daughters educated in the elementary steps of nursing.

Your committee believes that this very incomplete annual resume shows great progress and points to a far lower death rate and greater longevity in the near future. Centenarians are getting common while the great-great-grandmother of 95 is far from a novelty. With all the factors at work that have been here pointed out, and many others that time would not permit mentioning, the year 1950 will show as many people living happily and intelligently at the age of 100 years as live now to be 75.

THE PURE FOOD AND PURE DRUG LAW

Still the greatest step taken toward the preservation of health and the increase of longevity during the past year has not been referred to.

Maeterlink says: "A man who is good attracts, with irresistible force, events as good as he." In something the same way the man in Washington with the big stick seems to attract to himself men who carry some very formidable sticks of their own. This evening it is our great privilege to hear about the Pure Food and Pure Drug Law from the man who was present at its birth and prevented it from being stillborn. I refer to the Chief Chemist of the United States Bureau of Chemistry, Dr. H. W. Wiley.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PURE FOOD AND DRUGS IN RELATION TO PUBLIC HEALTH

BY DR. H. W. WILEY, OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF CHEMISTRY

Nourishment of the proper kind lies at the very foundation of health of body and mind. This great conference is for the purpose first of extending aid to those who are unable to help themselves, and second in some way to try to help those who go wrong. If we could get at the real causes of things, we would find that a great deal in this country which needs correction, has come from malnutrition. Since we have to put up with these bodies of ours, and some of us are willing to do it quite a while, no one seems to be quite willing to shuffle off even if he carries around two hundred pounds or more—nourishment is a thing of the first importance. If we accept the modern theories of physiology, that even the thoughts and the feelings and the emotions are intimately associated with bodily functions, how important it is that those parts of the body which are the seat of thought and emotion and ideas, should be properly nourished, especially if we wish the ideas and thoughts and emotions to be of the proper kind. So this problem of pure food and drugs lies at the very foundation of the purpose for which this Conference is called.

I believe you will all agree with me that impure food in the first two or three years of life is almost as great a cause of destruction of the human race as cancer and tuberculosis and diphtheria and spinal meningitis. We have statistics of some value on this subject which show that the very moment an infant gets the proper kind of food, that very moment it has a chance to live. But from the time it begins to rely upon milk that is picked up all over this country, its chances of living become less.

I heard a Harvard professor say that we age more during the first year of our lives than we do after ninety; and that the difference between the unborn infant and the infant a year old, is greater than the difference between a year-

old and an octogenarian; that therefore half of our life is in this first year, and hence the nutrition of an infant is of the first importance.

Another point where pure food has an intimate relation to the public health—we all know how prone we are in this country to disease of the digestive tract. Every day of our life its success and pleasure depends upon the proper conduct of the furnace and engine which carry out the purposes of the body. The average man of a hundred and fifty pounds burns three thousand calories, not quite as much as the Lusitania, but much more effectually used. If these great ships could use their fuel as effectually as a man does his, it would only take a hundred tons of coal instead of five thousand to drive them across the ocean. Anything that debases food or takes away from it its nutritive properties, or makes it less easily assimilated, is chemical tempering with the very foundation of our existence. This principle of pure food is based upon the point that food must be food and nothing else. So that in man, I don't care how much charity he needs, if you are going to give him food, give him good food. Don't buy the cheapest and most decayed, and think it is good enough for a pauper or a criminal. And if the criminal and pauper are entitled to pure food, how much more the normal man who does things for his country and who counts as a factor in the community? How often do we hear from those who have been engaged for a public speech that they have telegraphed or written, "Indisposed, ill, can't fulfill engagement." How many men have cut out of their daily lives hours of usefulness simply due to eating impure food!

The food law of which mention has been made, was not enacted, as many manufacturers suppose, to ruin their business. Business in foods is just as good as ever. A great manufacturer and producer told me, "I am always glad when a panic comes, because people quit spending money for luxuries and commence to buy food, and buy plenty. We never fear a panic in our business. The food business was never better in the country than it is to-day." One of the greatest food manufacturers in this country, whose competitors told him he could never make his foods without preservatives and ship them, sent

five hundred wooden barrels of tomato catsup to London, and it arrived in perfect condition. It didn't contain a particle of any chemical or drug, only food. So I say to every manufacturer, the same thing can be done. We must separate the drug store from the grocery store. One of the primary objects of the food law is to keep the drug store out of the foods. I believe it will do it.

I listened very sympathetically to what was said in regard to temperance and prohibition meetings. I made a test some time ago in which I was called upon to declare myself on this question. A man who stands for the sovereignty of the people of the United States must be careful how he stands. So I said I was a prohibitionist—theoretically. But what I want to do and what I shall try to do and have tried to do is this, that if a man takes a drink let it be a pure one and not an adulteration or imitation. I believe the great evils of the drink habit of this country to-day are more due to the adulteration and cheapening of these drugs than to almost any other cause. Alcohol was never intended to be an intoxicant. Alcoholic beverages were never intended to make people drunk. The moment you use them that way they are not beverages. Beverages are made to make you feel more kindly to your neighbor. But all the liquors offered to people to-day are pure intoxicants. They have lost their character as beverages by the basis of adulteration. They have been cheapened and are offered to the people in this cheapened form.

If it is important that a man in health should have pure food, how much more important when we reach the crisis of our lives, when we are lying perhaps at the doors of death, that the drugs we get should be the real article! I am not going to preach any theory of medicine. I will assume for the sake of the argument that there is such a thing as efficient drugs and scientific medication, and health from the drug; and if so, that health from the drug and the efficiency of the drug must lie in its purity and strength. So this national food and drug law says that a drug bearing a name known in the pharmacopoeia must stand in its purity and strength; so when you have that prescription filled by the druggist you may know that his drugs have come across the state line and complied with the law and

the medicine you get represents the prescription which you carried into the pharmacy.

But there is more than that in the law, and that is the control of dangerous habit-forming drugs. This national law says that when any drug package goes from one state to another and contains alcohol or morphia or cocaine or chloral hydrate, or any of its derivatives, it shall bear a statement of the amount and the kind of the drug, so a person shall not ignorantly become a victim of the drug habit. Every preparation that comes into this state or goes from one state to another, will bear on the label the character of the drug, and the amount. I believe in the control of these dangerous drugs of which alcohol is one. No more drinking under the supposition that it is a remedy and no more taking of morphia and cocaine in powders for the cure of catarrh, with the idea that it contains none of these deadly substances. You will no longer give to your baby a draught of soothing syrup which may keep it soothed for ever without knowing that it contains a deadly drug. The people of this country are saving their babies by refusing to give them these deadly preparations. I don't care what name they go under, whether soothing syrups or baby's drops. Let them all be banished. Better listen to the cries of the infant all night than to shuffle it to its grave.

I think I have outlined sufficiently the great work which this law was intended to accomplish and which it will accomplish. When this law is fully established you will have better health; you will have more protection from injurious drugs; you will have a better chance to see your infant reach manhood and womanhood; you will live longer and do more work and be happier, and when you get to heaven you will be more content.

THE NEGRO'S OUTLOOK FOR HEALTH

BY REV. BEVERLY WARNER, D. D., NEW ORLEANS, LA.

When it comes to pass in the course of human events that one-tenth, or thereabouts of a nation, with nominally equal rights and privileges, is separated by impassable barriers, social

and political, from the life of the other nine-tenths, then arises a problem of huge dimensions and vital importance.

It is the problem of both the majority and the minority. Whatever affects the negro in the United States affects the white man, and the outlook of the negro for health is one phase of the problem which is especially our concern. Is the negro race an increasing or decreasing factor, numerically considered, in our national life? Is there a race tendency to decay? Are there reasons to warrant us in believing that the answer to the negro problem so-called will be found in the ultimate disappearance of the negro, as the Indian has disappeared?

Prof. W. F. Wilcox, of Cornell University, Chief Statistician of the United States Census Office, declares that if certain anticipations are realized, "the negroes will continue to become, as they are now becoming, a steadily smaller proportion of the population."

Dr. W. B. Smith, of Tulane University, in his interesting book, "The Color Line," which I commend for many reasons to every student of this question, holds the deliberately prepared brief, that the negro problem, so far as it means menace to the Caucasian, will solve itself by the dying out of the negro race.

The laymen whom I have consulted,—planters, and managers of plantations employing large numbers of negroes,—while not unanimous, are nearly so, in holding this pessimistic view.

This is largely speculation, of course, the result of observation over only a part of the phenomena involved. Physicians will not say that it is capable of scientific demonstration. Even among men who would like to believe it, I find considerable hesitancy in accepting it as certain. If the searcher after truth thinks it a simple matter to be settled offhand by statistics drawn from census reports, he is doomed to disappointment. Acquaintance with the elusive quality of even substantially accurate statistics inclines the student to wariness. But when these statistics have to do with the health of a people, birth rate, death rate, and like vital factors, there is need for still greater caution. We can only perceive tendencies which may

be easily counteracted by other facts than those under inspection.

I will ask you presently to bear with the introduction of a few statistics,—very few,—which concern the belief of many patient investigators that this outstanding tendency is towards a steadily increasing "margin of white supremacy."

The Hon. Wm. H. Fleming expressed this in an interesting and illuminating address before the State University at Athens, Ga., in June, 1906. "Instead of the whites of the south being overwhelmed with a deluge of negroes, the certainty of continued white supremacy has steadily increased with every decade." This may be true, and probably is true, without indicating any tendency toward the final disappearance of the negro race. Neither does it necessarily involve that the future outlook of the negro for health is hopeless.

The best statement of the situation from those who hold the optimistic view, will be found in publications of Social Studies under the auspices of the Atlanta University, especially that one bearing date of 1906, entitled "Health and Physique of the Negro American." This series affords valuable data for every student, and gives evidence of earnest initiative upon the part of leading negroes, in attempts at the solution of their own race problem.

The statistics used pro and con, are those of the National Census, and I repeat are very imperfect. Even when thought to be as reasonably accurate as those of 1900, they cover but a small part of the area embraced by the whole question. For example, the death rate of only one-eighth of the negro population was recorded in the 1900 census; and while this has value in indicating a drift, nine-tenths of that one-eighth dealt only with negroes in cities. Now it has been pretty generally assumed that the health of the negroes in the cities is inferior to that of the country negro. Many even infer that the excess death rate of cities is balanced by the lesser mortality of the country. I find myself unable to agree with either conclusion.

Comparing mortality of whites and blacks in the registration areas, we find that while there is a reduction in both tables for the decade 1890-1900, the decrease among the whites is slightly greater than among the blacks. For the entire registration

area during the above period, the decrease in the death rate of the negroes was .3; of the whites 1.8. For the registration states, the negroes 1.74; the whites 2.2. For cities in registration states the negroes 3.9; the whites 3.5. For country districts in registration states an increase of mortality was shown of .9 black and .1 white.

You will note there is but little difference in this death rate per thousand, but that the slight difference is in favor of the white race. You will notice also that these statistics so far as the negro is concerned are gathered so largely from the cities, as to eliminate the country negro altogether.

The most significant facts in the whole problem, however, are those drawn from the mortality tables of children in 1900. The death rate of those under one year was for the whites 158 per thousand (male, 175.9; female, 139.8); that of colored children 371.5 per thousand (403.9, male, and 339.7, female). The infant mortality of the negro was thus more than twice that of the white. If that rate is continued, the outlook of the negro for bare existence is imperilled, whatever his outlook for health may be.

The testimony of almost every intelligent observer in country and city alike is that the negro families are much smaller in number than formerly. Whatever the reason, this seems to be one fact about which there is no dispute, if it is substantiated by the figures of the next census, the pessimist may settle himself with considerable firmness in the saddle of reasonable speculation.

We have one other source of comparative statistics, the accuracy of which is unchallenged, and the inference to be drawn from one of its tables, perhaps throws light on the smaller families of the negroes. In physical examinations for the entrance of enlisted men to the United States army, there is found to be but little difference, on the whole, between the two races, with perhaps a small percentage in favor of the negro. This may be reasonably accounted for, in part at least, by the fact that so large a percentage of whites seek to enlist because of failure in other lines and take to the army as a last resort. Such life failures are due in great measure to those personal habits which mean physical degeneracy, and consequent rejection from

the army. The negroes, on the other hand, who seek enlistment are in larger proportions from among the smart and ambitious of their race. The comparison between the two is a comparison of incompetents with a picked class, and the superior physical condition of negro over white applicants is natural.

But the fact of most significance drawn from these statistics, and bearing directly upon the *outlook* of the negro for health, is indicated in one cause of failure to be received into the army. We find that for the four years of 1901-4, the rejections per thousand on account of venereal diseases, were for 1901, whites 19.65; blacks 53.50; for 1902, whites 21.57, blacks 34.60; for 1903, whites 26.11, blacks 51.14; for 1904, whites 100.46, blacks 170.78. The prevalence of these diseases among the negroes of the cities is one of the causes of foreboding for their future. On the authority of planters and others in the country districts, I am inclined to believe that they are quite as badly off there. The transmission of diseased life carries its own certain penalty,—the disease tendency where actual taint is not conveyed, and weakened power of resistance.

The few statistics I have quoted, I beg to repeat, *prove* nothing. The utmost that the conservative thinker can say is that the tendency of these, and other figures with the same general drift, is in support of the judgment of a great majority of white physicians, especially health officers, and of white laymen who have had the opportunity of first hand observation,—that the outlook of the negro for health is uncertain,—while not hopeless.

The United States Census Bulletin 8, "Negroes in the United States," sums up the situation coldly and dispassionately as follows: "It seems not improbable that these figures may be trusted so far as they indicate that there has been a decline in the death rate of each race during the last ten years (1890-1900); that the decline among the negroes has been less rapid than that among the whites, and that the death rate of the negroes at the present time is about, but not quite, twice that of the white race."

Opposed to this is the belief expressed in a letter to me, by a leading negro of the far south, a man of education and ability, editor of an extensively circulated religious newspaper, that

"there is a decided improvement in health conditions among the negroes. Thrown out immediately after the war upon their own responsibility, followed by the flocking of negroes into city life, with which they were not familiar, and being crowded in these cities into small and dark rooms where there was a lack of air and sunshine, the mortality of the negroes showed to great disadvantage. As the homes are improved (and the improvement of home life is very decided), and as the laws of hygiene and of health are known, the health conditions of the negroes greatly improve."

The negro physician of prominence and recognized ability has been found in my own personal experience to be reticent on this subject. Of twelve such physicians to whom I addressed a letter (using, by permission, the name of the editor whose words I have just quoted), asking merely for an opinion based on their general observation, I have received but one answer, and that one did not think my question "sufficiently explanatory to warrant a full and intelligent answer."

The crowding of the negro into the city is admitted by the leaders of his race—as well as alleged by the thoughtful judgment of white students—to be fraught with danger. Dr. Smith, in his previously quoted book, "The Color Line," says: "To all appearances the negroes will stream steadily towards the towns, and gather more and more densely in certain localities. But this tendency deals them death."

Prof. Dubois, of Atlanta University, whose "Souls of the Black Folk" thrills with the most pathetic and tragic quality, says, speaking of the efforts of the negro to settle and take root in the soil, "Fully ninety-four per cent. have struggled for land and failed, and half of them sit in hopeless serfdom. For these there is one other avenue of escape toward which they have turned in increasing numbers, namely, migration to town." We can but echo Dr. Smith's conclusion, that this means death to the negro.

While there is an improvement in the sanitary and hygienic conditions surrounding some of the city negroes, it is but a small proportion of the whole. The churches and public schools are doing much, but bad liquor, cocaine, venereal diseases, added

to the tuberculosis plague, play sad havoc with a people crowded and herded as the mass of city negroes are.

This reminds us that another factor has been added to the problem we have under consideration, of quite unknown weight. The cocaine habit has been developed of late years among the negroes of the cities with apparently appalling results. There are no statistics available to show how widespread its effects, but there is no lack of testimony that there are grave effects. If the cocaine habit were confined to the lowest stratum of negro population, we might group it with bad whisky and syphilis as only the practice of the most degraded. But this is not so. It is perfectly well known that the average negro below the professional class, day laborers, house servants, etc., is becoming addicted to the use of the drug. I have this on the testimony of physicians who have no reason for misstating the facts, or of viewing them from a biased standpoint.

To this use of cocaine as a regular custom, many believe, may be charged an increasing violence of disposition; a reckless disregard of consequences; an unusual ferocity in the accompaniments of crime, on the part of negro malefactors. Again, this is a speculation, but it is speculation based upon close observation. The strictest laws governing the sale of cocaine are about as effectual in large cities as those governing the sale of liquor. The penalties for breaking these laws which stop short of prison stripes and revocation of license are grossly inadequate. When the penalty is incurred by a white man, it ought to be trebled, whatever its original severity. Cocaine then, as an element in weakening the racial stock, cannot be left out of account. It is possible that a feeling of depression over the difficulties of the present, and the uncertainties of the future, may have some permanent effect upon the health of the race.

Observers in the country tell me that the negro of the present generation is a different creature entirely from the negro who emerged from the Civil war, having grown up in slavery. That slavery was a blighting curse to this land I have no doubt whatsoever; but that it was a material paradise for the negro in general is also beyond dispute.

The relation of the old master to the new freedmen after

the war was, in most cases, cordial and sympathetic. There is many a section of the south yet, where these relics of before the war still live and are cared for at the expense of the old master's family. The relationship of mutual interest and mutual understanding of and respect for each other's position, which characterized the former state has passed away, and in the transformation the negro, with the great gain of freedom, has endured great losses.

In the south, the negro will never be allowed political power or social consideration. I do not stop to explain or defend this, but state a simple fact. This is ever before the negro race. It must have an effect upon the mind and soul which in time will react upon the body.

It has been noticed that the old joyous note has disappeared or is fast disappearing from the life of the negro. The levees of New Orleans and the river towns once rang with the songs of the roustabout and deckhands. This has passed away, and a lugubrious chant has succeeded, where dogged and sullen silence does not prevail. How far this latent hopelessness of mind may affect the strength of body, I do not know, and therefore pronounce no judgment. It is one of the conditions, however, with which we have to deal, in touching upon the negro problem at all.

From the bird's-eye view we are enabled to get of the tendencies observable in present conditions, we can but decide that the physical status of the negro, from a most conservative point of view, is low, with but uncertain hope of improvement; in other words, that the outlook of the negro for health, while it cannot be pronounced to be hopeless, is serious enough.

From a wide and fruitful experience, Dr. Rudolph Matas, of New Orleans, declares that "the number of negroes dependent upon hospital relief is steadily increasing, and is out of proportion to the number of population." On the debated question as to the influence of the mulatto and race amalgamation, Dr. Matas has an important word to say. This authority, it must be remembered, has under observation the Charity Hospital of New Orleans, one of the largest in the world, through which a constant stream of black as well as white patients is pouring. While reliable data are wanting, "the almost unanimous verdict of

these who are best authorized to speak on the point, would lead us to accept as a fact, that which we have only the right to consider as an impression—namely, that mulattoes, and especially those of Anglo-Saxon crossing, have not the strength and endurance of either of the pure races. It is certain that they are much more liable to hereditary diseases, especially tuberculosis and syphilis. It is almost certain that when they marry among themselves, the next generation is even still feebler."

Is there a remedy for racial degeneracy, and what is it?

In the Atlanta publication No. 2 for 1897, Prof. Eugene Harris, of Fisk University, declares bravely that immorality is responsible for the physical status of the negro, "and if," he says, "we are to strike at the root of the matter, it will not be at sanitary regulations, but at social reconstruction, and moral regeneration." I will return to the matter of sanitary conditions presently. What has the scientific student and scholar to say of this? Quoting from Hoffman, in his important "Racial Traits and Tendencies of the American Negro," and approving the spirit of the statement, our previously quoted Dr. Matas says:

"Whatever the race may have gained in an intellectual way, which is a matter of speculation, it has been losing its greatest resources in the struggle for life and sound physical organism and power of rapid reproduction. * * * All the facts obtainable which depict truthfully the present physical and moral condition of the colored race prove that the underlying cause of the exhaustive mortality and diminishing rate of increase in population, is a low state of sexual morality, wholly unaffected by education."

I call attention to the final words, "A low state of sexual morality wholly unaffected by education." Mere book education is the solution of no problem on earth. If immorality is largely at the bottom of the physical degeneracy of the negro, secular education is not the remedy for it. I add one more bit of testimony from the man of science.

"That the degenerating tendencies of the colored race, revealed by statistics, are due essentially to the influence of unfavorable hygienic surroundings; to unfavorable social (including moral) environment; to all the causes which lead to a

bad heredity, vice, dependency and degradation, and which are acting simultaneously upon an ethnologically inferior and passive race, which is struggling for existence with a superior, aggressive and dominant population."

There is so much confusion in the spoken and written testimony as to these problems, that it is significant and convincing to observe one outstanding admission of white and black, of cold men of science and ardent preachers of morality, that the moral weakness of the negro has, if not a preponderating, which is probable, still a very great influence upon the mortality of the negro race. Therefore, whatever view men may hold—whether with the optimist that the outlook is promising, or with the pessimist that it bodes ill—a grave moral problem is involved.

Returning to the assertion of Prof. Harris, of Fisk University, that "to strike at the root of the matter it must be not at sanitary regulations, but at social reconstruction and moral regeneration," I cannot but believe with my whole soul that sanitary regulations and kindred devices have a very great deal to do with social reconstruction and moral regeneration. It is not too much to say that immorality is often the immediate product of unsanitary and unhygienic conditions. The negroes do herd more than the whites, and the mere contact of the herding process results in some of the immoral practices which, at the least, contribute to the physical degeneration and high death rate of the negro race. The physical conditions, amidst which such a large number of negro children are brought up, are the result of ignorance as well as neglect; of malnutrition; crowded quarters; foul air; a fatal lack of a sense of responsibility for to-morrow as well as to-day.

The negro race is amenable to teaching, instruction and direction in these things. There was the most perfect cooperation of negroes with the white population of New Orleans during the latest and—consequent upon that scientifically conducted campaign—we believe the last, epidemic of yellow fever, in 1905.

I believe that the prophet of hope for the negro future is the Sanitary Reformer equally with the minister of religion.

Certainly, Jesus of Nazareth combined the two in his ministry to this world.

The general conclusion I draw from our consideration—all too brief for its importance—of the grave question is, that moral problems are quite as much the duty and task of the political and social student as of the priest and preacher.

The righteousness which exalteth a nation is as definite an entity as its constitution. It is not a mere commonplace of ecclesiasticism; it is the vital quality of social and political health. The dictum of Thomas Jefferson that "moral duties are as obligatory on nations as on individuals" is worth pondering in political committee rooms as in church vestries. The moral law is the law of eminent domain.

This problem of the negro as to health, involved in that of morals, I beg to repeat, is the problem of the white race equally with the black. It becomes every discussion of the subject to deal with the facts without passion or prejudice, without resentment, and to avoid the building upon half truth. I am fully persuaded that the tendency so far as we can judge from what we know looks ill for the future of the negro, but I am also certain that we are not in possession of all the facts.

The supreme duty of those who are interested in the problem is to gather the facts, all the facts, and nothing but the facts; the most necessary in the present stage of investigation are those that deal with the actual condition of the country negro. We might hope, perhaps, that in the preparation for the census of 1910, the government would undertake to gather exact information over a territory large enough to warrant the drawing of safe deductions, at the expense of superficial and inaccurate statistics of the entire area of negro occupation.

Meanwhile, we are bound to believe the best; to work along those lines which we would surely do if we *knew* instead of only hoped, that our toil might result in a complete victory.

I see everywhere signs that the best people among the negroes are more and more restless under the stigma which their degenerates and criminals cast upon the whole race, and as they seek moral regeneration among themselves, they should be helped, sustained and comforted by the Anglo Saxon—from

whose ranks, in the far south at least, for which only can I speak, they have always drawn their truest friends.

DISCUSSION.

Dr. Levi, of Richmond—The outlook for the negro as far as we are able to judge, is serious. During one year the white death rate was two hundred and eighty-eight per hundred thousand, and the colored rate was six hundred and ninety-two—2.36 times as high. In five years the rate has been about the same proportion, the deaths occurring most frequently during the early periods of life. In Richmond last year we had fifty-seven deaths of negroes over seventy years or four per cent. of all deaths. Among the whites there were two hundred and sixty-six, or twenty per cent.—one negro in twenty-five above seventy, and one white in five above seventy. The outlook is certainly hopeless unless something very radical is done. The duty of every member of the conference is to support the pure food and drug laws as outlined by Dr. Wiley.

THE NEGRO CONSUMPTIVE

BY CHARLES R. GRANDY, M. D., NORFOLK, VA.

When one looks at the problem of consumption among the negroes, one is brought face to face with the fact that, proportionally, about three times as many deaths occur from tuberculosis among the negroes as among the whites, and that furthermore a very small percentage of negro consumptives ever recover. There must be some reason for this, and also some way of improving these deplorable conditions. This question has been confronting the Norfolk Anti-Tuberculosis League for several years, and for that matter is still confronting us, for we do not pretend to have solved it—as we have found the question a very complex one; so complex indeed that it needs to be attacked from all sides, as I think I will be able to show, and in consequence should be widely discussed in order to get as many people as possible interested in the work.

A small committee of the Norfolk League, consisting of Miss Taylor, who has charge of Industrial Classes for the Negroes, Mr. Pannill, of the Board of Health, and the writer, has been trying to obtain information on this subject; and first of all we have tried to get the opinions of the negro doctors and preachers. These answers and our own observations will be combined with what little I have heard and read on the subject, and presented to you for criticism and advice.

The large question before us may be divided thus: Is there a physical predisposition or lack of resistance to tuberculosis in the negro? Or is the predisposition rather a mental one, in that he is unable to rise to meet the conditions which face him? or are these adverse conditions forced on him on account of racial prejudice? All these have been given as answers to our problem of why so many negroes die of consumption. Which of them is correct?

On first sight it appears that there must be some physical racial predisposition, but this has been answered by the statement, that before the Civil War consumption was almost unknown among slaves in the country. If this be true (and I believe it is true in the main, though lack of reliable statistics keeps me from being able to either positively confirm or deny it), it merely proves that when the negroes lived orderly lives under conditions resembling those at a tuberculosis sanatorium, they seldom contracted consumption.

On the other hand, probably the most intelligent negro physician in our district writes: "I can discover nothing either in his habits or manner of living to account for the negro's proneness to tubercular disease. Other races, the poor white Americans, Italians and Irish live under the same conditions with regard to habits and mode of living, as the masses of the negroes do, and yet with the possible exception of the Irish, they do not fall victims to consumption in so large numbers as does the negro." Is it not possible that the whites have obtained some slight immunity to tuberculosis through generations of contact with it, and that the negroes as well as the Indians have not that slight immunity? In consequence of this, when these two races are exposed to tuberculosis under conditions favoring the disease, they have not the natural resisting powers of the whites, and so contract it in much larger numbers. Nevertheless, please do not for a moment consider that I believe that this is the only side of the problem, but merely that this decreased resistance will need extra sanitation to keep off the disease, whereas in reality the sanitary conditions surrounding both the negroes and the Indians are of the worst.

Add to this the fact that the negro has not yet become accustomed to the cold of our country, that in consequence he tries

to shut out all the cold air possible, and that the resulting poor ventilation is one of the conditions most favorable to the spread of the disease. Here we certainly find physical peculiarities which act against the negro in his fight against tuberculosis,

This physical predisposition is, however, not nearly so certain as various other conditions, which surround the majority of negroes, and which would conduce to tuberculosis in any race, though probably not to the same extent as in the negro. I refer to poor housing, overcrowding, lack of ventilation and insufficient nourishment, and back of these poverty, ignorance, thriftlessness and vice; conditions which prevail to an alarming extent among the negroes. And these in turn, when applying to the greater part of a race, must be due either to a mental unfitness to combat the existing situation, or else to its being forced into them through the prejudices of another race.

Is there then a mental unfitness in the negro to combat the difficulties of our twentieth century life, more especially the life in the towns, on account of which he falls a ready victim to tuberculosis? I scarcely think this can be questioned, though I do not think this a discredit to the negro. We must remember that our system of living has been of very gradual development, stretching over thousands of years, and that in this gradual development we have become used to city problems and city conditions, and indeed we have imperceptibly changed from the savage to the civilized being, or mentally speaking from the child to the adult. Now the negro savages (children mentally) were brought between one and two hundred years ago to this country. While they were slaves they developed wonderfully under the care and tutelage of their masters, and seemed in a hundred years to be approaching a mental development, which it took the white race thousands of years to attain. When the restraint and tutelage was taken away from them, the artificial forcing of their minds ceased, and they were thrown on their own resources to combat conditions, to which they were completely unused. A small per cent. is apparently meeting these conditions, but the majority has not been able to do so.

This mental unfitness for modern urban life is shown in the family life, where in a large part of the negroes the support is thrown almost entirely on the woman, as is very fre-

quently the case among savages. Here the woman has to leave the children to gain a livelihood for them. In the country districts where the children can be "turned loose," this does not make so much difference, but in town they must be put in houses where there are women, who do not go out to work, and I have known these women care-takers to be consumptives. Again I have known a negro husband to desert his wife because she had consumption, leaving her to the charity of the neighbors. Another mark of mental childishness in the negro is the seeming inability of the majority to persevere in an occupation or undertaking. They apparently must have change, either in their jobs, their dwellings, or their towns; on account of this tendency a large part of the men will work only a part of the time. The higher their wages, the fewer days will they put in, this being especially the case when they have wives. who are cooks and can supply them with food. The result of this can only be poverty, which means overcrowding and poor food, two big predisposing causes of tuberculosis. On account of frequent changes in dwellings more houses are infected by careless consumptives, and more healthy people are in turn infected by these houses. On account of this same lack of perseverance we can seldom get a negro to continue treatment for consumption—they simply will not put up with a restraint necessary to obtain a cure. This has not only been our usual experience in Norfolk, but at the sanatorium at Ironville, none of the negroes would continue the free treatment offered them. They cannot understand why they should not go to a dance, simply because they have consumption, nor are they willing to use sputum cups, for fear that their friends will say that they have consumption. This childishness, which keeps them in the first place from being willing to acknowledge they have consumption and later on from being willing to persevere in the treatment, is the reason why so few negroes are cured. That a large per cent. can be cured, has been proved at Petersburg, at the Central State Hospital for the Insane, where being committed as insane, they can be forced to carry out treatment. I can give you other examples of this mental unfitness to meet our urban conditions, or as I prefer to put it their "mental predisposition" to tuberculosis, but I think I have given enough.

These inherent qualities in the negro are aided by poor tenements and lack of building laws, at least in my own city and I have reason to believe in other southern cities, and possibly by some municipal neglect of the negro portion of the town. But that this is a secondary condition is proven by the fact that the negro mortality from tuberculosis in Norfolk (4.33 in the year 1907) is less than that in the Registration States (all of which are north of the Potomac), less than that in Washington, and much less than that in Boston, where they also have a good class of houses. And this likewise disproves the contention that the tremendous amount of consumption among the negroes of the south is primarily the result of a racial prejudice, as is supposed by some of the negroes themselves.

From what has preceded it will be seen that this "mental predisposition" in the negro renders the problem of tuberculosis much more difficult than in the whites. Can the problem be solved and how? The usual answer is one word "education," but the kind of education is not specified. This is a good deal as if I had called in a consulting physician to see a sick man and he had simply advised me to give him "medicine," without specifying the kind. The ordinary lectures and the ordinary circulars are inefficient except for the most intelligent class. The others will listen to the lecture and read the circulars, but like children they soon find the instructions too hard to carry out, especially where they curtail their evening's amusements. Visiting nurses are of more service, but neither our white nor our colored nurse has been able to make the majority of the patients use sputum cups or keep their windows open after the nurse had left the house. Primary education, which we Virginians most heartily believe in for the negroes, has also been of no service in this regard, as is shown by the increase in tuberculosis in the last twenty years, along with the increase in the number of negroes who can read and write. The truth is that these only better a few of the symptoms, but they do not get at the underlying cause—the "mental predisposition." But will it be possible to change the mental and moral characteristics of a race? I must confess that I am not very sanguine in regard to this. The task is that of teaching them to live a moral, simple, and properly regulated life. It can best be done by getting them

back into the country, and into the country of the south, where climatic conditions are favorable for the negro. But to do this they must give up much of their "social life" and their town amusements—the dance-hall, the bar room, and the crap game. Can their childish minds be educated to see the wisdom of this? Not only should they go to the country, but as many as possible should own their own homes there, and I am glad to say that more and more negroes are doing this, for in these cases we find a proper family life, and in consequence not near so much tuberculosis.

But this is not within the reach of the masses of the negroes in the towns, masses which I am sorry to say are being steadily augmented from the country. Can we not at least help them by symptomatic treatment? To do this we must begin with the children and each city with a considerable negro population should have a Day Nursery and Kindergarten, in charge of a capable white woman, where the children of the working negro women could be left, and where they would not be infected with tuberculosis, as is often the case now. Next, the cities of the south should pass Tenement House Laws, as well as Tuberculosis Registration Laws, under which they could better follow up and disinfect rooms after the removal of tuberculous occupants.

Furthermore, I believe that, where an advanced consumptive refuses to obey instructions and is endangering those around him, he should, if necessary, be forcibly removed to a hospital, as is now done with cases of smallpox and some other contagious diseases. This of course would apply to white as well as to colored patients, but it would have to be used much more frequently with the latter. As far as I know there is at present no sanatorium especially for negro consumptives, and few are treated in the sanatoria of the north. Such a sanatorium should prove of great benefit by teaching early cases how to live, so that they in turn could teach their fellows. But such a sanatorium will have many difficulties; first it will be hard to get the early curable cases, as negroes seldom apply for treatment till the disease is far advanced, then it will be found very hard to get the cases to submit to outdoor treatment, without which no good results can be obtained. I really believe

that such an institution would be of very little service unless the patients would voluntarily commit themselves, so that they could be made to obey the rules, and even then we would have to wait a long time to see results.

The white people of the south are extremely interested in the Negro Tuberculosis Problem, both from the fact that consumption in the negro is an ever present danger to the whites, and because we feel, that to a great extent, we are the guardians of the negro and we hate to see him suffer needlessly. But as we have no sanatoria for our own consumptives we scarcely can be expected to provide them first for the negroes, especially when we realize that a negro tuberculosis sanatorium is a very uncertain venture. We nevertheless are even now trying to better the situation as a whole, though with very poor results I must confess, on account of the great inherent difficulties. So I am appealing to you as trained workers to thoroughly investigate this important problem, and give us advice as to how we can best attack it.

A NATIONAL SANATORIUM FOR THE TUBERCULOUS

BY FRANK M. BRUNO, COLORADO SPRINGS. (*Abstract.*)

The writer of this paper is not a physician. The subject, therefore, will not be treated from the medical point of view. The benefits, or otherwise, of a National Sanatorium for the tuberculous situated at a point where climatic conditions are favorable, has doubtless been discussed by the physicians of this audience in their medical associations, from all points of view; and anything that I might say from their standpoint would be pure presumption. My interest, and whatever knowledge I possess lies in the fact that the one and ever recurring problem confronting the Associated Charities of Colorado Springs, with which I am connected, is how to deal with the tuberculous as they come literally pouring into that and neighboring cities of Colorado. Our concern, therefore, will lie in the direction of the economic aspect of the situation, and in the medical only as it conditions the economic.

In spite of the rapid education of the people in the gospel of fresh air, the Rocky Mountain region, and the eastern slope of it in particular, continues to be the Mecca for the tuberculous. It would be difficult to estimate the proportion of Colorado's inhabitants who are there for their health or that of relatives; 50 per cent. would be a conservative estimate. At any rate a considerable proportion of the state's inhabitants have found new life amid the sunshine and pure air in Colorado; and it is no wonder that the news spreads to the rest of this country, and to other parts of the civilized world. In Colorado it is natural to live out of doors winter and summer. There is no rainy season; no oppressively hot months, and so far as the day time is concerned, none when it is too cold to sit out of doors in fair weather, and fair weather is the rule.

The state has not been backward in advertising these facts, and in response, physicians all over the country have not hesitated to send their patients to such a favorable climate. For those who come with sufficient money to support them for at least six months, and without anxiety for what is to follow, the climate exerts a maximum of benefit; with the benefit decreasing in proportion as the patient must provide for, or worry, about his means of livelihood.

With such a climate as Colorado possesses, the attempts made by other communities to check the "White Plague" by local sanatoria and other out of door treatments must always remain only partially successful. A large proportion of the tuberculous will leave their home for a more favorable climate. "All that a man hath will he give for his life," and, personally, I should be the last one to criticise this migration. Perhaps the best municipal care of the tuberculous is given by Cleveland, Ohio. Yet only the other day a young man came into our office saying that he had been in the City Sanatorium of Cleveland for six months, and that the resident physician had advised him to leave for Colorado. It makes little difference whether the young man told the strict truth or not regarding the physician's advice. The significant fact is that he voluntarily, or upon advice, left one of the best equipped sanatoria in the country where the climate was not favorable, to go to a better climate.

It would be desirable to get a close estimate of the number of the tuberculous to be taken care of. Confining our attention to Colorado Springs—and the communities on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains of Colorado do not differ much in this respect—we have estimated, after careful investigation, that 10 per cent. of its population is tuberculous. That means that there are about 3,000 in Colorado Springs at one time, and perhaps between four and five thousand different ones in the course of twelve months. Of this number about 33 per cent. are cared for, either partially or wholly, by charity. That gives 1,000 belonging to the class that such a sanatorium as we are about to describe ought to care for.

The hospitals and sanatoria of the city have about 600 tuberculous in their care during a year. The rest live where they wish or can. I shall not attempt to go into detail regarding the fate of those who cannot afford sanatorium care. It is suggestive to say that they have nothing which it would furnish except the fresh air. Their diet is haphazard; sanitary arrangements poor or entirely lacking; medical attention at best unsatisfactory and at worst negligible. When in addition, the patient must attempt to earn part of the money necessary to maintain himself, the advantages of the climate are entirely neutralized.

One of the most interesting inquiries that could be made in this connection, would be a careful compilation of the relative recoveries under sanatorium care and without. The result of such a study would be appalling. Within the past fifteen months, the Associated Charities of Colorado Springs has had 263 persons with lung and throat diseases, appeal to it for aid. Practically the only ones that get well are such as we can secure sanatorium care for.

So far as the writer's knowledge goes, there are only four sanatoria of any size in Colorado that attempt to care for the wholly or partially dependent tuberculous. They are located in Denver. The two Jewish—the National Jewish Hospital and the Jewish Consumptives Relief Society—are the only ones strictly charitable. They are also non-sectarian, although as a matter of fact very few non-Jews are inmates. The first named uses neither tent nor pavilion in its treatment, but relies upon

the sleeping porch entirely. It receives only curable patients and strictly limits the time of their stay. Its capacity is about 130 patients, and it is, like all the others, always filled. The cost of maintenance is about $62,000 a year or about $1.18 per patient per day. The other Jewish sanatorium receives patients in all stages of the disease; it uses the tent, pavilion and the sleeping porch. Its capacity is about fifty patients. Taking all stages, it naturally receives a disproportionate number of the incurable. Its cost of maintenance is about $20,000 a year, or $1.15 per patient per day.

In addition to the above two, there are several that may be styled partially charitable. Only two will be mentioned: the Y. M. C. A. Camp and the Phipps' Sanatorium. The former is a tent colony in its simplest terms, taking only curable patients and charging $28 per month. The Phipps' Memorial Sanatorium is a splendidly equipped institution having accommodations for 120 patients. It uses the pavilion and sleeping porches. For the former it charges $9 per week and for the latter $12. It has recently abandoned the tent. It accepts only curable patients and strictly limits the time of their stay.

These four sanatoria are national in their scope and organization and their patients come from all over the country. To the prospective patient, however, the length of their waiting lists must seem prohibitive.

Outside the above mentioned institutions, there are none that attempt, in any considerable way to care for the poor tuberculous. In the neighborhood of Colorado Springs there are several built to meet the needs of certain classes of people. The International Typographical Union maintains a sanatorium in Colorado Springs. The Modern Woodmen of America are building such a home. The Letter Carriers and Carpenters are both planning such an institution. But these are only open to certain classes, and the number of those who are not eligible to these special institutions must always remain much greater than those who can enter them.

If the printers and the lodges find it both economical and humane to organize such institutions in the Rocky Mountain region, it would at least suggest the question as to whether it

would not be both humane and economical to care for the dependent tuberculous in the same way.

You will probably notice that nothing has been said in this paper regarding the cost to the Colorado public of these tuberculous patients nor the injustice of thrusting such a burden upon them. In the matter of economy to the patient, to the community that takes care of him, as well as that from which he has come, and to the country at large, there can be no question but that a thoroughly equipped national sanatorium would be cheaper that the present method of hand to mouth existence.

A National Sanatorium of the kind desirable should not be expensively built. On the pavilion plan, the best for the purpose, the cost would be about $150 per bed. The administration buildings would cost about $50,000. The maintenance cost would be about $1 per day per patient. While it would be well to limit reception to curable cases, some of the others might be accepted on certain terms, patients might be nominated by societies in places which co-operated in the movement.

The Sanatorium might be erected by the National Government and the patients supported by the states or cities sending them. England has a sanatorium on this plan, which might not, however, be acceptable here. The one feasible plan seems to be to make the sanatorium the joint agent of the organized charities of the country, each local society helping secure contributions and having the right to send patients in proportion to the money secured.

For many years delegates from Colorado have been coming to the Conference protesting against the indiscriminate sending of indigent patients to the state, as an unfair burden on young and small communities. We do not suppose the proposed National Sanatorium will be a panacea for this evil. People will still go to Colorado foolishly. Physicians will continue to send patients when they do not know what to do with them. But the Sanatorium would meet a great need. It would relieve a present source of suffering and death; but far more important than that, it would be a most valuable adjunct in the general campaign against tuberculosis.

THE HOUSING PROBLEM AND ITS RELATION TO OTHER REFORM MOVEMENTS

BY MISS HARRIET FULMER, SUPERINTENDENT OF NURSES, VISITING NURSE ASSOCIATION, CHICAGO

No one feels more apologetic than the writer for asking this section to listen to the hackneyed subject of better housing conditions for the less fortunate. At the risk of seeming tiresome in going over old ground, I am asking you to think for a few moments what it would mean to this country if this great national body of philanthropic and reform workers would advocate a concentrated action from the Atlantic to the Pacific for better housing conditions for the poor and the small wage earner. Why is housing reform obviously a field for this body to attack? Because two-thirds of the corrective and reform measures which we meet here year after year to discuss are the direct outcome of bad housing conditions.

Not long ago someone gave out some very interesting data as to the causes of poverty and asserted that drunkenness led the list. But they should have gone one step farther back and asked what led to the drunkenness. *Bad Housing!* Two-thirds of the delinquent children come from homes where dirty and ill ventilated rooms predominate. Two-thirds of the physically ill children from the same. One-third of the mentally deficient from the same. One-third of the shiftless mothers from the same. Two-thirds of the deserting fathers from the same. To bad living quarters can easily and without exaggeration be attributed two-thirds of the necessity for much that we call "problems" in our reform work. Just as long as we have bad living quarters to offer the less fortunate, so long must we have expensive reform measures. Why pour water into a sieve by being content to let greedy or indifferent landlords, ignorant and careless municipal authorities, politics and what-not, interfere with the humane work of tenement house reform? One could easily become a fanatic on this subject and I am not sure that it will not take a fanatic to first start the ball rolling in a great National Crusade for proper housing. I am not unmindful of the attempts made in a few local centers in this movement,

but we are doing it only in spots, and spreading the time over a score of years instead of four or five.

The principle in any reform movement that says "I am satisfied to do my work for the future" is not what we want in this particular instance. "I am glad to do this work, but the good result will not be in your day or mine," may be all right in some instances, but it is unpractical in so vital a measure—a measure that is affecting to the core thousands and thousands of human beings.

All this work should be under municipal control, but until the public conscience is awakened we are not going to make great strides in reforming conditions.

Some commendable investigation and work has been done by the Tenement House Commission of New York, the City Homes Association of Chicago, the Committee of One Hundred on Public Health, and many others, but they are either local, or interested in all the sources affecting public health. What we want in order to awaken National interest and wide awake reform is one great movement with "Housing Reform" as its one and only specific purpose.

Every person here to-day whose work takes him across the threshold of the homes of the less fortunate classes will bear me out when I say that bad living quarters affect social conditions of the mass of people more than any other one thing. Then—three "first aid to the injured" remedies are:

(a) More fearless Health Officers in every community.
(b) A "Public Health Committee" in every Council.
(c) A "National Health Bureau" under government control.

Proper housing conditions is one of the most potent factors in the elimination of tuberculosis. Elimination of this disease means elimination of poverty and a direct decrease of the demands on all charity agencies. Surely we realize how futile are our efforts when we ask legislative bodies for enormous appropriations to build sanatoria for tuberculosis, while we go on feeding the conditions which make these appropriations necessary; for the thousands of children living in insanitary dwellings are ever contributing to the need for expensive protection in other directions—it is the wrong end of the ladder.

In no instance is "treating symptoms" so applicable as in the housing problem. Attention to this fact for a continuous period of a few years would mean the saving of millions to the state. Better building laws, better uniform tenement house laws, would mean the solving of many problems we are discussing, and rigid enforcement of these laws, the supreme step. Of what use are these laws unless enforced. In one city an owner of an insanitary building need only mention the name of a politician in his neighborhood, and the suit is withdrawn, or as often mayhap, the notice is never served.

The story of one family alone is not perhaps a fair criterion, but Mrs. B. tells us that when, because of financial loss, her family removed to an insanitary building, then their downfall began. She was a decent, middle-class, self-respecting woman, brought to a bitter fate she did not deserve. Disease came first, typhoid and tuberculosis. Then the husband went to the saloon, the children became delinquent, and the whole family drifted to state charges.

In a study of fifty backward children in an ungraded school in a large city, forty-three of these children occupied homes which it should have been the business of the state to see did not exist. The bad housing may not have been altogether to blame for the physical and mental condition of these children, but it certainly was a large contributory cause. Our National Public Health League would do well to begin its work by putting all its efforts to the agitation of the housing problem, because this touches close home to all, rich and poor alike.

"The necessity for a National Organization of Health is imperative," says a pamphlet of the Public Health League. Then its first step should be the extinction of insanitary living places. It is the most vital and the easiest proposition it has yet had put up to it. The same pamphlet goes on to say that: "For a nation to permit great waste to go unchecked is more than a suicidal policy; for an evil more destructive than race suicide is race homicide."

There are four great wastes to-day, the more lamentable because they are unnecessary. They are preventable death, preventable sickness, preventable conditions of low physical and mental efficiency, and preventable ignorance. The magnitude of

these wastes is testified to by experts competent to judge. They fall like the shades of night over the whole human race, blotting out its fairest years of happiness.

The facts are cold and bare—1,500,000 persons must die in the United States during the next twelve months; equivalent to 4,200,000 persons will be constantly sick; over 5,000,000 homes, consisting of 25,000,000 persons, will be made more or less wretched by mortality and morbidity.

We look with horror on the black plague of the middle ages. The black waste was but a passing cloud compared with the white waste visitation. Of the people living to-day, over eight millions will die of tuberculosis, and the federal government does not raise a hand to help them.

This conference represents all phases of betterment work, fine, helpful, uplifting agencies, but one more big, telling, tangible effort should be its creed for 1908. The war cry of housing reform coming from this powerful body of workers would make congress, legislatures and the wealth of the land listen as they have never listened before. Many of my hearers know what good is being done in a few instances locally, but it is slow work. A crusade of this kind affecting the lowliest citizen of the capital of our country to the remotest village of the plain, is what we need.

Housing reform is not a local affair. It is a great national problem. Housing reform touches close home to the pathetic story of the Great White Plague. Housing reform means moral, decent citizenship. The National Conference of Charities and Correction takes sides with no one movement, but it seems to me that its specific right and just duty is to advocate a movement of this kind.

DISCUSSION

Dr. J. H. Stolper, of Oklahoma—In Oklahoma where the huge tenement house with its fifteen and sixteen families is unknown, where there is ample space for every family to be on the ground floor with a garden and flowers to make life pleasant, the housing question is one of the least troubles of the charity worker. I hardly agree with Miss Fulmer in her diagnosis that bad housing conditions are responsible for poverty here. I am of the opinion that Miss Fulmer takes the effect for the cause, the wealthy have at their disposal all the conditions that create good houses, it is only the poor that have to take what they can get. I would substitute

for Miss Fulmer's maxim that "Bad Housing Leads to Poverty," the opposite "Poverty Leads to Bad Housing."

Regarding the necessity of efficient, intelligent health officers in every community, Miss Fulmer is absolutely right, and here I am ashamed to confess that the health conditions and health laws in the United States are in anything but a satisfactory state. There is a crying need for a central health authority, away from local, petty, commercial interests. Again, local politics often place health authority in incompetent hands. The individual states should surrender their sanitary police powers to the federal government and thereby create a central health authority as is found in all great countries except in the United States. We have in the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, an excellent nucleus to begin with, and should Dr. Walter Wyman's jurisdiction and powers be raised to the dignity and influence of a cabinet officer in the president's cabinet, the greatest good would result to the whole country.

Dr. Lindley—I agree with the speaker that we need a public health department. If it is necessary to have an amendment to the constitution, we certainly should have it. But from what I have learned, I believe it is not necessary. We want to stir up the country in behalf of those who are not able to take care of themselves. The gentleman who has just spoken is in a good position to bring these things before the conference. I hope this conference will take official action on his suggestion that we urge this addition to the powers of our government—a national department of health.

Mr. W. W. Baker, of Chesterfield County, Va.—There is no subject that appeals more to the people of Virginia than that of public health. Previous to this year we made an appropriation of only four thousand dollars a year for our health department. But about eighteen months ago, realizing the necessity of action which should be taken, we introduced a bill to appropriate forty thousand dollars a year for improving the health condition of the State of Virginia, and for the appointment of a bacteriologist for the purpose of eradicating as far as possible that terrible scourge—tuberculosis. This bill met with such enthusiasm on the part of the members of both the house and the senate, that it was passed almost unanimously. We had thirty-six votes for it and not one against it in the committee on finance. We don't mind spending millions for education, we feel that that is a privilege. But we are just waking up to the obligation that rests upon us to care for the health of our children after they are educated.

Mrs. H. E. Bacon, of Evansville, Ind.—We are trying to pass a tenement bill for the better housing of the poor, and in the interest of tuberculosis patients, too. While the foremost people in our state are in sympathy with it, yet it needs the pressure of public opinion.

Dr. Stolper—Under our constitution a city has the right to institute condemnation proceedings. A man can do on his property anything he wishes under the constitution of Oklahoma, but his wishes must comply with the provisions of the public building department. We have sufficient land in Oklahoma. We have no congestion. We do not allow any topsyturvy building since we have become a state.

Miss Weill, of Pittsburg—The housing question is more of a menace in the largest cities than anywhere else. To my mind it is owing to high rents, and the people have to crowd together. We are almost helpless against that condition. Mrs. Kelley of the National Consumers' League had an article in "Charities and the Commons," suggesting that the large cities buy tracts of land and rent it to people who wish to build tenements to better the condition of our working population.

Mr. Hartman, of Boston—In our social and charity work we are too apt

to follow the method of the experimental chicken that scratches around on the top of things and considers that satisfactory. We must get more after the causes of things and remove them. In the housing question I find most people are going in to cure the slums. While they are curing one bad condition they allow a dozen bad ones to develop. They say we can do nothing towards the prevention of the development of slums, and they allow our land system and our system of hiding behind the constitution to prohibit any real preventive work. Every man must do what he pleases, and whom he pleases, with his own. We shall have to go to Germany, to Switzerland and Sweden, and to other European countries and take their method of town planning. They are working some at curing slums, but they are chiefly working at building cities without slums, and in which slums can not be possible. This is progress, it is more than scratching the surface. Let us learn this and we need not try to fight the hopeless fight of curing slums.

SOCIAL WORK OF GENERAL HOSPITALS

BY JAMES MINNICK, SECRETARY C. O. S., PROVIDENCE, R. I.

To insure the physical efficiency, which alone makes people self-supporting, the medical and surgical work of the hospitals must be supplemented by adequate social work. Here are two illustrative cases showing the need of such work: A child is brought to the hospital for an operation and is provided with braces and sent home with instructions to the mother. But the mother does not go back to the hospital, no one visits her to impress upon her the need of sending the child back to the hospital for further examination and treatment. She is poor, ignorant and in trouble. Four years later that child is sent back for treatment in worse condition than before.

A daughter who has been supporting her mother by teaching music gets into the hospital for an operation. It is thought at first she will have to be there only a short time. But she is in such a run-down condition that the operation could not be performed at once. She has been there now eight months. One operation has been performed and another will have to be. When she goes home she will have to be followed up and taken care of and gotten into physical condition so she can support her mother.

There is often a great deal of misunderstanding between the charity organization societies and the district nurses' associations. Neither sees the problem from the other's standpoint. We find in some of our large cities there is very little co-operation between them. In one city the head nurse declared she

would rather go to other organizations for consultation than to the organized charities. There is an advantage in having nurses trained for their special work, who understand the social side of the problem; and social workers who understand the nurse's side of the problem. Supplementary work of the kind is often felt to be primarily a social problem; that the hospital has performed its work in caring for the patient. When a patient needs nursing after leaving the hospital, there is a nursing association to do that. Or, if the family relationship needs to be looked into, and the family reunited, that is the social problem for the social worker.

Dr. Armstrong, of Bellevue Hospital, says in a letter on the subject of social work of hospitals; as follows:

The character of social work done in Bellevue Hospital is such that in my opinion it can only be successfully undertaken by a graduate nurse. I fully agree with the position that because a woman is a nurse would in nowise qualify her for a social worker, but it seems to me that a nurse is most competent to undertake work done in a hospital, because she has a knowledge of hospital methods, routine and discipline, which is not possessed by the social worker, and her training as a nurse will give her considerable information as to what may be done in certain cases, thus avoiding unnecessary trespass on the time of the physicians.

The work was undertaken in Bellevue in order to put those patients who were in the hospital, and who were in need of other than medical aid, in touch with various organizations, or individuals, who were prepared to give such relief as was necessary. The graduate nurse in charge of convalescent relief work does nothing at all in the way of district nursing, nor was it the intention that she should. Her work was entirely on the lines that I have above referred to, and in our own experience in Bellevue we have found that certain investigations must be undertaken individually by the nurse, who must also give a certain amount of personal service, as in taking patients to trains, etc. The better trained the woman who undertakes such work the better the work is likely to be done, and while I concede that the nurse engaged in such work would probably do it better if she had had training in a school of philanthropy, I do not think that an ordinary graduate of the school could handle such work as we are doing as could the woman who had had training in nursing as well as in philanthropic work.

Probably in the work that is done in connection with the out-patient departments of hospitals it is not so necessary that the worker should be a graduate nurse, although here too there may be some advantage in such training, but I am quite convinced that in work within the institution a graduate nurse is the proper person to do it."

Miss Mary M. Ogilvie, Social Worker of the University of Pennsylvania, gives an account of her work as follows:

"The general purpose of the Dispensary Social Service is to follow up the treatment given by the physicians who have not the time in addition to their free services to the patients to visit them in their homes. Because of this inability to know his patient's environments, his financial circumstances, and all his peculiar cares, the physician is unable to make

his treatment thoroughly effective. In some cases he is unable to make a positive diagnosis. This is especially true in nervous cases. The social worker going tactfully into the home, can gain the patient's confidence, investigate financial circumstances and sanitary conditions, learn family history and note the patient's personal habits. With this knowledge the dispensary physician and the social worker can together make intelligent plans for the patient's best interests.

Of the two hundred patients assigned to us since the beginning of the work in October, eighty were tubercular. This branch, therefore, demands most of the worker's time. Either of three plans is followed with tubercular cases:

First—The placing of patients in sanitariums.

Second—Arrangements for treatment at home.

Third—Tuberculosis class instruction and home treatment.

Ten have been placed in sanitariums, two have died while on sanitarium waiting list, thirty-five by the help of relatives or other means who have supplied diet or nursing, or both, have been cared for at home; twelve have joined the tuberculosis class. This class is conducted by one of the dispensary physicians for his own cases alone.

Sixty of the two hundred were patients sent to us by other agents or individuals to be steered through the dispensary with the request that the diagnosis and recommendations for treatment be reported back to the interested person or agency. Most of these cases have come from the Society for Organizing Charity and the University Settlement House. This method of sending a case for treatment insures prompt attention from the dispensary and satisfaction to the interested agency or individual. Thirty-seven other cases have been referred by the social worker to the various other agencies already equipped for dealing with the problems presented. By this method of exchange, duplication of service has been prevented and much valuable time saved, and thus working together, the new department has had the co-operation of forty-seven kindred agencies and institutions. We have found the churches—Protestant, Catholic and Jewish—specially helpful.

Backward children assigned to us have had the great advantage of the psychological clinic of the university. This clinic has also referred cases to our department.

Several wayward girls assigned to us have been cared for by the hospital, sent to homes or institutions, or assisted in their life plans for the future. One girl who had quite lost interest in life is now taking a college course.

The need for employment or the change of employment for patients led to the establishment of an employment agency. This branch of the work is encouraged by the superintendent of the hospital who looks to us to assist in finding servants for the work of the wards. One of our first patients with advanced tuberculosis who with his wife was living in a small third-story room of a crowded tenement, was placed in a sanitarium; the house was fumigated by the board of health, and the wife, found to be free from disease, was given employment as a companion to an invalid, a position which she continues to hold.

We have been fortunate in finding an earnest, able staff of assistants. Our volunteer force now numbers eleven—two school teachers, two stenographers, two medical students (Women's Medical College students), a settlement worker, a graduate nurse, and three others who, without a special profession, have that rare gift of approach which enables them to be wise and successful visitors. Every first and third Thursday of the month the Dispensary Social Workers meet in a conference at which reports are given, plans discussed, and new cases assigned. We have found it helpful for the social workers of the wards to meet with us

on these occasions, for very often we have the same interests, as some of the dispensary cases have been admitted to the wards or former ward patients are coming to the dispensary.

While the new work has only made a beginning, we are sure it has a great future and that it can be made specially interesting and helpful as a permanent department of the university.

In Providence we have developed a certain amount of this work in connection with our tuberculosis work. The District Nurse Association and the Society of Organized Charities keep the same offices, although they are entirely separate organizations. The Tuberculosis League is a part of the Organized Charities. The League employs four nurses who do all the nursing of tuberculosis patients under the management of the District Nurse Association. One of these nurses attends every clinic at the hospital, so every patient that comes to that hospital is in personal contact with this nurse, who talks with the patients and finds out their home address. They are followed up and visited.

If we find, however, that there are other problems involved than the work of the nurse, the case is taken up by the society for organized charities, and the relief necessary is given through the Tuberculosis Association. Under this head comes the looking up of relatives and references. The nurse necessarily gets a great deal of information from the people, and with our system it is not necessary to duplicate it.

SOCIAL WORK AT MASSACHUSETTS GENERAL HOSPITAL

BY DR. IDA M. CANNON

At Massachusetts General Hospital we have between four hundred and six hundred patients every day. They are seen by a very small group of men, and each patient has a very few moments with the physician in charge. Dr. Cabot felt very keenly that that examination, even if it were reasonably thorough, amounted to very little unless the patient and his treatment were followed up. Three years ago he established the system of nurses to visit the patients in the homes, and to follow up to see that the treatment was effective. The policy we have worked out has been to know our community and its agencies, to be

a connecting link between the needs of the patient in the hospital and the agencies in the community ready to meet those needs.

Our work is entirely supported by volunteer contributions. Our patients come to us from the different physicians in the dispensaries. We make out a little record of the color, age and former address of the patient, and whether single or a widow or divorced, and the nationality, occupation and name of husband or wife, and children, and from what department that patient was sent, and the diagnosis. In Boston we have a central directory at the Associated Charities, where from fifty to seventy-five of our agencies register the cases they have handled. This avoids duplication, and each agency knows what the others are doing with the same problem.

Forty-five per cent. of our cases come from outside of Boston, and we have a card index of suburbs, with the different associations and private individuals interested—the Board of Health, and all those organizations—that we can make use of. In connection with that we try to throw back to every community its own problem and thereby relieve the tuberculosis work. Whenever we have a patient whose problem we feel is a family problem, where it is a question of relief for any length of time, that is referred to the Associated Charities with a recommendation from the physical side. If it is a problem for a children's aid society, we refer it to that.

The Bureau of Information has been very interesting. We often find patients from Boston referred to us for special needs when some other organization is just at the crucial point in dealing with the case. We use our Visiting Nurses' Association a great deal.

When we first began our work at the Massachusetts General Hospital, we were swamped with the tuberculosis problem. We feel that that is the entering wedge to the medical social work. The social aspect of the tuberculosis problem has enabled us to work out this whole question of connecting the medical and the social work, and I look for big developments.

We have been able through the women's clubs and through the physicians, to arouse the suburbs to the tuberculosis problem. We have two tuberculosis classes of patients who live at

home and meet once a week with the physician. They keep a record of what they eat and how much they sleep, and their symptoms, and the doctor gives them such instructions as they need. We have a children's class. We feel that this is a good way to deal with many of our tuberculosis cases because we haven't enough sanatoria to take care of them. Sometimes in cases that can be taken care of at home, that home can be reorganized hygienically, and much done to strengthen the family. We also examine the children of tuberculosis patients and arrange to have many of them sent to the country, as well as other children who have a predisposition to tuberculosis.

The psychiatric work is a specialty with Dr. Cabot. No group of people suffer more than nervous patients. Many of their families are not intelligent enough to realize that this is a diseased condition. We have now two paid workers who are giving all their time to cases of psychoneurosis, people who have no organic trouble but who suffer, and need treatment. Nurses visit the patients in their homes and have long talks with them. Often they have fixed ideas or hobbies. These workers are particularly trained in psychology and psychotherapy. We have an occupation class for these people, and it has aroused their interest and spirit. Nothing is said by the teacher about symptoms. Everything is done to stimulate them to a more wholesome point of view.

Defectives and feeble-minded are sent to an institution where they can be properly taught. You need a permanent body to follow up these cases. We thought we would do wonders with the stammering children; we had three or four. We visited the children in their homes, but before we had gone very far in arranging our classes, we discovered in one case that it was not a case of speech defect, it was largely a question of bad hygiene and child labor. This child has never had a chance. We have co-operated with one of the district agencies, and the child has been sent to the country where he works at a congenial task and gets enough to eat. We haven't grasped the hygiene situation sufficiently.

We had an insomnia patient. We found she was sleeping five in a bed. Talking it over with the family we arranged things so that the patient was allowed to have a room by herself.

On the social side also we see the problem of making adequate arrangements in the convalescent homes. Two or three weeks very often is not long enough to be effectual. It ought to be extended to six or eight weeks. In industrial hygiene we report our cases to the Board of Health and the district inspector of health.

We are trying to organize a group of health visitors like the friendly visitors in the Associated Charities. We have had in the children's clinic a worker who has done interesting work. She is a kindergartner. She instructs the mothers and follows the patients into their homes and does a great deal in establishing friendly relations and personal hygiene.

We have one worker who is giving all her time to the problem of unmarried, pregnant girls. We feel that an institution is not the place for such girls, because many are not the kind that ought to be thrown with a lot of other girls in the same situation. Our woman is peculiarly fitted for her work. She follows up the patients and makes close friendships with them, and tries to adjust the family to the situation, and the patient to the situation. She has been with us only eight months, but it has been very much worth while.

In connection with that same problem we have had brought to our notice the need of a place for veneral diseases because we have no place but the almshouse for that. In connection with that we come in contact with the great problem of ignorance on the part of our young people, and the necessity of such work as the societies for moral prophylaxis.

We are also doing a little work on the question of occupation in tuberculosis. We feel in tuberculosis that it is not so much the question of occupation as of home conditions. Cooperation with other agencies is the part of the work that should be developed. Often the agencies, such as Dr. Minnick represents, feel the lack of an opportunity to know the mental and physical side of the patient whose problem they are dealing with on the social side. We have a system of thorough cooperation and exchange of information with the Associated Charities, the Children's Aid Society and other similar organizations. In this and other ways we are trying to make the hos-

pital a large social factor, as it cannot be, when the physicians and nurses simply attend to the medical and surgical work in an independent way.

SOCIAL WORK AT JOHNS HOPKINS HOSPITAL

BY DR. CHARLES P. EMERSON

Social work in the hospital involves two points. One is the social service work for the patient. The patients come with many needs which should be met, and which can be answered by the social service organizations; hence the need of much social service work.

The other problem is the medical work. That is often lost sight of, and when discussed alone is not the most pleasing side of the question. The hospital has a sort of contract with its patient. The patient comes not because he wants to, but because he has a pain. He asks the hospital to cure that pain. He doesn't care what you call that pain. He wants to get rid of it. He asks you to do it in the quickest and easiest way possible, and with just as little disturbance to his religious and social ideals as possible, and with as little disturbance as possible to his vices.

If the hospital receives him as a patient, it accepts a tacit contract to cure him. How is it going to do it? The patient seems to think that that pain is best cured by some dose of medicine to be taken three times a day; he judges the hospital training and treatment by the effects of that dose of medicine three times a day.

Suppose I should describe some cases that come to a doctor in the dispensary. Here is a little girl with a headache. She wants to get rid of that headache. The doctor says, "You don't need medicine, you near a pair of glasses. They cost seven dollars." The little girl says, "I haven't got seven dollars, and my father hasn't got seven dollars; can't you give me medicine?" "No, here is a prescription for glasses." Well, the little girl continues to have the headache because no one gets the glasses. The hospital has not kept its contract.

A man comes with a headache. The doctor says, "Your headache comes from a trouble with your arteries which is due

to your profession. You are a painter inhaling white lead. You must give up your profession, or chronic trouble will develop so you will not live many years more." The patient says, "I am a poor man, six children depending upon me; can't you cure that headache with medicine and let me go on with my work?" If the hospital is honest it will refuse that man medicine because it would encourage him in thinking that he can be cured by medicine. Unless some social service is done for that man, he leaves the hospital with the contract unfulfilled and the pain is not cured.

These social service departments go back to the time before the year one thousand when in one of the Spanish hospitals nothing but perfect linen was used, and the patients ate out of silver dishes, because it was said to be for the education of the patients, and because they said the patients would remember the service of the hospital and become better men and women because of it.

Social service has another aspect, and that is that the doctor may keep up his reputation, may live up to his contract.

A certain orthopedic surgeon invented a new brace, which he wished to demonstrate as the best on the market for a certain children's disease. The doctors were willing to pay money and provide these braces to demonstrate their value. They put the brace on a child and sent it home. The child came back with the brace in its hand. They found the brace had been on the child an hour after each weekly visit to the hospital, instead of twenty-four hours every day six weeks continually. It is necessary not only to provide the braces which cost fifteen dollars, but to provide nurses to visit the children in the homes to see that the brace is constantly as well as properly applied. That is the social service which is conducted for the sick, and allows the hospital to keep its contract with that child to cure the hip disease.

Here is a doctor interested in stomach trouble, and he has devised a new diet for his patient. The patient cannot afford it, but the doctor wants to demonstrate to himself and others that that is the proper diet for that particular trouble. He provides the diet out of his pocket. He finds that the patient has to have rest at the same time from work, and he sends a

nurse to make sure that the hygienic surroundings are proper, and he follows his case with proof that that diet is the best for that patient. Such work as that has been going on ever since the first hospitals were opened.

In tuberculosis work it has been found that the patients do not need medicine. They need to spend a certain number of hours in the open air, and a certain diet. So we send nurses into the homes of these patients to make sure that they get the diet, and that they spend twenty-four hours a day in the sunlight and open air. That is social service work. There ought to be a place where that work can be done in the charge of a trained worker. That is the work of the future.

But the social service work has another aspect which ought to be emphasized, and that is its educational value. We believe in Baltimore that a student needs to be educated in the way the poor live, just as he needs to be educated in the way the poor are treated in the hospital; how the poor man's coal bin diminishes and how his stomach acts. Seven years ago we began to interest students in that work, so that now there are sixty-five of them doing work outside of school hours among the poor, learning how the poor have to meet their own problems, and becoming wiser in the treatment of their patients. That is the most important part of our social service work. If the social service department treats one man well, it treats *one* man well. But if we teach one medical student how to treat that man well we have treated every patient that that medical student will come in contact with. And we have given the student a tool to use for treating the poor. Are we using social service for therapeutics, for educational purposes, or to uplift the patient? That depends on the worker. Here is a man with a stomachache. He calls it dyspepsia. The doctor says he must have teeth. The good social service worker will help him get those teeth. It makes no difference to the patient how his trouble is cured, and the hospital cares only that those teeth are provided. It is up to the social worker to see that they are provided.

Here is a man with a headache. The hospital cares only for the cure of that headache. When that headache is cured the hospital is willing to drop the case. The social service department may find a hundred other problems to tackle in that pa-

tient. But they want her to help them to cure that headache, and when that is done the case is dropped so far as the therapeutic side of it is concerned. He ought to be handed over to the other charitable institutions to follow out the other lines of work which have been uncovered by the search for the cure of that headache.

You will say this is purely visionary. Let us look into the future. Here is the man with his stomachache. The doctor says that he needs one especial kind of medicine for that particular pain. The hospital, if it keeps that man as a patient, should provide that medicine, no matter where it comes from or who pays for it. The hospital ought to see that the man gets the medicine. If it does not give it to him, it is not keeping its contract. It may do it from its own funds, or from the social service department.

Mr. B. comes in and he has dyspepsia. The hospital says that Mrs. B.'s cooking is the cause thereof. Mr. B. doesn't need medicine, he needs a wife that can cook better. The hospital knows he will not get better until he gets better food. What can the social service department do? Pretty soon a young woman will drop down into that home. She has heard something about their canary, or a pretty cat. She makes friends with Mrs. B. She suggests that her stove isn't very good. She arouses Mrs. B's curiosity. She speaks of a new cook book and a cooking school. Pretty soon Mrs. B. gets the idea that she is a better cook, and Mr. B. gets better. But he never knows that that young woman is the cure of the dyspepsia, and the hospital has kept its part of the contract. It was just as much a part of the hospital's business to see that he got better home cooking as to give him medicine, had he needed medicine.

Now Mr. C. comes. He has dyspepsia—nervous dyspepsia. After the social service workers have worked on that case they find that Mr. C. has a wayward son or daughter that worries him. Insomnia results, and dyspepsia. The hospital should tell Mr. C. we can't cure your dyspepsia, you are not a case for medicine; if it keeps Mr. C. as its patient, it is duty bound to cure that dyspepsia by the means which it knows are suitable for such cure. If the dyspepsia is due to worry over a wayward son the hospital ought to use every means at its disposal to reclaim that way-

ward son. The doctor doesn't know how it is going to be done. That is the part of the social service department. The social service department may follow it up through one of the medical students. I am giving actual incidents and not ideal cases. The hospital may do it through some friend of the family, or through a plea to the clergyman to whose church that family belongs. The well trained social service department has a hundred tricks up its sleeve for that case. It is the duty of the social service department to cure the dyspepsia by reclaiming that wayward son. Whenever the social service department comes across a case that needs some work, it ought to turn it over to the proper city charities. I am speaking of social service in the hospital. I am emphasizing the medical side only. But the social service department is to help the hospital to keep its contract to cure the patient by the means which alone will cure. And when it has cured the patient it has kept its part of the contract.

Criminals: Their Punishment and Reformation

REPORT OF COMMITTEE

BY W. H. WHITTAKER, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE INDIANA REFORMATORY, CHAIRMAN

Any man who gives this question serious consideration from the viewpoint of being his brother's keeper, and anyone who has been in prison work for a period of years, must come to the conclusion that the criminal laws in all our states have been short-sighted, incorrect, and in many cases barbarous. Those who violate the law and are termed "criminals" are much like other men. When normal, they have the same perceptions of social relations and the same admonishing instincts as other men, but through the environment that has been thrown around them by society they commit crime. They are obstinate and intractable; hence wayward and contrary. If this be true, can we expect reformation where brutal, vindictive and inhuman punishment is administered to them by men who are void of those finer conceptions of life that make for true Christian character?

It is only in recent years that the people have begun to realize that the methods employed in our penal and reformatory institutions must be along different lines, and a few of our progressive states have molded this sentiment into wholesome and righteous laws. The mere enactment of laws, however, will not bring about desired results upon any proposition. There must be placed in charge of our institutions, after proper laws have been passed for a foundation upon which to work, men and women who are of the highest character; who can stand before these untrained, uneducated, wicked and vicious citizens as examples of everything that stands for honor and Christian citizenship, in order that the teachings and precepts of Him who shapes the destiny of all men may become the foundation of reformation.

True friendship, love and the "square deal" mean much to this class of unfortunates; and, when these principles prevail, as they should in all of our penal and reformatory institutions, 90 per cent. of the normal men and boys, who are confined in such places, can be saved to society.

The trouble has been in the past, and in very many instances is the trouble today, that little is known of the "square deal" by the officers of such institutions. Legislatures are, as a rule, too niggardly with their appropriations to provide for the payment of salaries necessary to bring to prison work a class of men of the highest type of citizenship. There can be no real reformation by merely throwing a man into an institution to serve time. Unless he is brought into contact with officers who possess high ideals of life; unless he is instructed from day to day in a different kind of life than that which he has been leading in the slums of our cities; unless he can be shown that it is better to earn his money by honest labor than by dishonest and questionable practices; nothing can be gained by confinement in an institution.

The error with our penal system in the past has been that not only the public in general, but those who have had control of prisoners have thought only of their punishment. There should be no punishment in a penal or reformatory institution. I am firmly of the opinion that with the proper class of men as officers in our institutions, with the indeterminate sentence law in all of our states so that inmates can be held a sufficient length of time to become decent citizens, there will be absolutely no real punishment in such institutions in fifty years.

In my judgment, the only punishment that the state has a right to inflict upon any man is to deprive him of his liberty, and the more he can realize that there is a place in this world for him to fill as an honorable citizen, the more severe will be his punishment, if we must so term it.

The old idea of punishment, that of lashing a man across his bare back, the ball and chain, the dingy, unsanitary and ill-ventilated dungeon, the curses and abuse of brutal officers, has made more criminals and has made worse criminals of men who have been discharged from our institutions in the past

hundred years, than can be attributed to any environment or condition that can be found upon the outside of the institution.

Punishment is an antiquated expression for the reformation of criminals. It should be eliminated from the statutes of our states and should be frowned upon when rules are promulgated for the handling of men in such institutions.

The great railroad systems of the country and all great corporations are giving much more attention to the mental, moral and physical make-up of their employes than ever before. The use of liquor is absolutely prohibited by many of these large corporations. Lines are being drawn more closely on the use of tobacco in many of its forms by many of them. The question of a man's morals is being looked into by successful business men before he is employed. If he is profane, has no regard for religion or its teachings, there are very grave doubts as to whether such an applicant will be accepted by these corporations. Experience has told the managers that the most useful man to them is one who has a clean mind—a man who can think—and it has been clearly demonstrated that a man who has had no early training in good morals, who has not been able to control his appetite, and has permitted himself to become a slave to the use of tobacco, liquor or to other habits which impair his mind and body, is not the man they trust in positions where the lives and comfort of the public are to be dealt with.

This thought, then, brings us to the question of what it takes to make a good official or instructor, morally, mentally and physically, in our penal and reformatory institutions. "What is the purpose of these institutions?" There can be but one answer to this question, and that is, to make desirable citizens and manly men of the fellows who are sent to us. Punishment can be of no value in such institutions because real punishment only brings out the criminal or animal nature that is in every man, and if we follow strictly the line of punishment the result must be that the man will leave the institution a worse criminal than when he came into it.

If this be true, what should be the make-up of a man who devotes his time to training and making better men of the de-

fectives and unfortunates who come to such institutions? Should he not be a man who has the proper mental, moral and physical capabilities to impress himself for righteousness upon the fellow who has violated the law and whom society has turned over to us for treatment?

Officers and instructors employed in such institutions must in the truest sense be their brothers' keepers. They must at all times keep themselves in shape so as to be examples for better things. The key to the whole situation of reformation lies in the hands of the men and women who are employed to do this work.

In handling this question, I do not wish it to be understood that I am not in favor of criminals being imprisoned for crime. I am advocating, and hope to have the legislature of Indiana in the near future place upon the statute books, a law establishing another institution for our state, to be known not as a reformatory nor as a prison, but as an institution of detention, to which every criminal convicted by the courts of our state—it matters not for what crime except that of treason or murder in the first degree—shall be sentenced. This special institution would be under expert management for the purpose of classifying the criminals of the state.

If, after being received, the convict was found to be under sixteen years of age and normal, and that there was hope of his reformation, he would be transferred to the boy's school, there to be treated by education, by practical trades and retained therein a sufficient length of time to reform him. If the person committed to this special institution was found to be sixteen years of age and under thirty, to be normal and a fit subject for reformation, he would at once be transferred to the reformatory, there to be given the moral, educational and physical training which in time would develop him into a law-abiding and useful citizen. If he was found to be over thirty years of age, and a normal man, he would be sent to the State Prison, there to remain for such a period as the management of that institution believed was necessary to cure him of his criminal tendencies. All those found to be abnormal, or not subject to reformation, but such as should be under supervision, then would remain in this special institution, comprising, I

hope, if it is ever established, 2,000 acres of land with walls surrounding it, where they could be retained the rest of their natural lives under supervision and humane and fair treatment, under such conditions as to be self-supporting, and their labor need not conflict with the labor of any free man.

Today, almost without exception, our reformatories and prisons are receiving a class of degenerates and abnormal subjects who are associating with the normal inmates, to a degree which seriously interferes with the success of the reformatory measures devoted to the normal inmates.

I am not only in favor of criminals being confined a much longer period than is now usual, but I am in favor of the habitual criminal act, which is in force in some states, where the confirmed criminal—the one who has been in prison the third time—is sent up for life. But the accidental criminals, the ones whom society has neglected, comprising some 60 per cent. of all persons found in the reformatories of this country, should be handled along the lines indicated in the report of this committee.

It is a well established fact that the man most dangerous to society is apt to be a model prisoner, obeying all prison rules and regulations, so that a clean record in prison is not the only ground on which an inmate should be released.

A normal boy under the method of fixed sentences can be reached only in a small per cent. of cases, for the reason that he knows exactly when he will get out of the institution and he will not permit himself to think of better things or bring himself to understand that there are better ways of living, but under the indeterminate sentence and parole law, the fellow knows that the only means of getting his liberty is by his industry, by his education and by his acts while in the institution, to warrant the management in releasing him on parole.

Under the old method of fixed sentences, statistics show us that 60 to 70 per cent. of the men sent to such institutions, when released, follow the life of a criminal; while, under the indeterminate sentence and parole law, as handled in our progressive states today, absolutely reverse statistics are shown; that is, that 60 to 70 per cent. of the men released from these up-to-

date institutions are going back into society self-reliant, self-supporting, manly men.

The greatest helps in the reformation of men in these institutions are those of moral instruction, education and labor. We must have thorough, practical schools for the illiterate; we must have trades-schools and workshops that are thorough and practical. We must have a class of officers who are in sympathy with the ideas that will assist in bringing about reformation; our system should be one of education and practical labor.

There is now a bill before Congress which is a most vicious and far reaching measure in its effects upon penal and reformatory institutions, and it should never become a law. I want to appeal to you through this report to use your influence with your congressmen and senators to see that such vicious measures as are being brought forward are not passed.

If a bill should be passed with the provisions contained in the bill which is now in Congress, in my judgment, within sixty days after its going into effect, the workshops and trades-schools of our penal and reformatory institutions would be stopped and virtually every inmate would be thrown into a cell in idleness, which condition only breeds disease, insanity and every form of vice. Not only this, but it would throw the institutions upon the tax-payers of this country at an enormous expenditure to care for them.

If the states are not permitted to work their prisoners at a remunerative wage, a tax of something like $12,000,000.00 per annum must be levied upon the tax-payers. Without employment for their inmates, the reformatories and prisons of the United States would be turned into insane hospitals, because idleness will bring insanity under such conditions to a very large per cent. For Congress or any of the states to pass a law which would compel these institutions to close down their industries would be nothing less than criminal.

The statements made by the labor committee's report presented to the committee which has this bill in charge are overdrawn and untruthful. The amount of goods manufactured in our reformatories and penal institutions placed upon the market—as they say "in competition with free labor"—com-

pared with the amount of goods manufactured by free labor on the outside, ten years ago, was only two-tenths of one per cent., a mere drop in the bucket. Today the amount of manufactured goods put upon the market, as the leaders of labor claim, by penal institutions, is less than one-tenth of one per cent. Out of thousands of various articles made in this country, the labor committee's report made to Congress mentions less than a dozen articles manufactured in the penal institutions that are in any way, competing with free labor.

The report of our labor friends goes further to say that inmates of penal and reformatory institutions are not being benefited by trade instruction, and that the methods used in such institutions in such instruction are criminal. In my opinion, the author of this statement, never spent a single day in a well-regulated institution where trades are successfully taught to the inmates.

At the reformatory, in Indiana, each year one hundred to one hundred and twenty-five inmates are being taught trades, and are being sent out to take their places in the outside world as upright, honest and successful laborers. From this institution, we place on parole in all, more than two hundred inmates each year, who are making their own way and who are respected and honored citizens. If Congress does pass the law which the labor leaders of this country desire, more than 75 per cent. of these two hundred men in Indiana will be released upon society worse criminals than when they were sent to the institution. It is not a question of commercialism, but a question which affects every community of this country from the standpoint of social conditions.

A man who will stand before a congressional committee and argue that these men, after society has put temptations before them which they could not resist and has caused them to be imprisoned, should not be taught trades or should not be benefited by labor in such institutions, has no conception of the rights of individuals or of what the country owes to society.

A statement that inmates of these institutions are not benefited by trades is untrue, for the managers of such institutions, in which proper trades are taught, have upon their

desks weekly, letters from farmers, manufacturers, from every class of employers of labor, asking for the service of these men and boys, because they have been taught useful trades and because they can be depended on for honest labor.

Many of the labor people themselves, in our section of the country, who belong to the union, assist us in holding these boys up when they are paroled and in seeing that they are given employment at proper wages, not only while they are on parole, but after they have been discharged as free citizens.

I believe eighty per cent. of the people of every state in this union, where this subject has been properly brought before them, are absolutely in favor of a system that will teach these unfortunate people how to labor, and give them an education and a trade, and are perfectly satisfied where such conditions exist. What opposition we are having comes from people who are ignorant of what institutions are doing, who talk purely from the standpoint of theory and know nothing of the practical results that are being obtained.

I have been in this work for more than twelve years, and in that time, I have come personally in touch with the labor leaders of our state. Upon many different occasions, the labor committees of our state, composed of from four to six members have visited the institutions of Indiana, staying for several days, and invariably they have returned to their homes satisfied with conditions. In fact, they have been so well pleased that in two instances the labor leaders have helped to draft the law under which our state prison is now working, and four years ago a committee representing labor, assisted in passing through the legislature the law under which the reformatory is now working. About six months ago this same committee, with the exception of one member, visited the institution over which I preside, looked carefully into the methods we use and in my presence said, after having made a careful inspection of the institution and seeing the necessity of education and trade for the prisoners, that they, the committee, were fully satisfied with the conditions, and that the labor people should have some charity, and should bear their part of the burden (if there is any to bear) in permitting these men to work and to be taught trades.

It is true that there are manufactured a few articles in the state prisons and reformatories of this country which are being placed upon the market, but they are not being placed in competition with free labor for the reason that in 90 or 95 per cent. of the cases—if not in 100 per cent.—these goods are sold right alongside goods manufactured by free labor at exactly the same price. Competition of this kind is not competition with free labor.

If these men were not in these institutions and were upon the outside, no one could or would deny them work. And when the labor of any man, it matters not where he is, is placed upon the market, at the market price, no man can truthfully say that such labor is coming in unfair conflict with the labor of any free man. On the other hand, for argument's sake we will say, that Congress should pass the bills before it, and each state should care for its own inmate's labor in the penitentiary of each state. Instead of these states in their various institutions manufacturing as they are now but a few articles, it will be necessary for them to manufacture hundreds of articles and throw them immediately on the market of their own state, which would be far more injurious to the labor people than what is done under the system by which we are working.

Business men who are manufacturing goods in such institutions are in business to sell their goods at good prices. There is no need of them or the state cutting prices and for this reason there are few, if any, who are buying these goods at less than the market price. The report of the labor committee is absolutely unfair, for the reason that they are not quoting statistics of today, but are quoting statistics from reports made ten or fifteen years ago. The institutions are not turning out 50 per cent. as much as they were a few years ago. I know of an instance where a chair company had some three hundred men employed in the manufacture of furniture in an institution in Indiana, and on the outside had some five or six hundred free men employed in the manufacture of the same articles. Three years ago, when it came time for the company to renew their contract for prison labor, they refused to do so because they said the price asked for labor was more

than they could pay. Their contract was discontinued and they withdrew from the institution.

In another state a similar case occurred. Some six hundred prisoners were employed in making furniture, and this company withdrew from the prison at the expiration of their contract.

The unfairness in the report of the gentlemen who represent labor, is also shown by statistics given upon the subject of cooperage. They quote only from the reports made in 1875 and 1885. Why do they not give statistics upon this question from the years 1905 and 1906? No doubt for the reason that they know that now there are only one hundred men in all the United States working within the walls of a prison in the cooperage business, and that the goods made by these men absolutely have no effect upon the price of cooperage, for the reason that the barrels are crated and put in the same car with barrels being made by free labor on the outside of the institution and sold at exactly the same price.

The man or committee who has written the labor report very adroitly says that "no one who has at all familiarized himself with the subject entertains the idea for a moment that any opponent of the present system of prison labor suggests or favors the keeping of the prisoners in idleness." This sentence is absolutely misleading and misrepresents the purpose of a bill that is before Congress. If they are honest and sincere in saying that prisoners should not be idle in these institutions, they will at once advise the withdrawal of the bill.

The committee says that work and reformation must go on together if there is to be any reformation, but that prisons have not been established for the purpose of competitive manufacture; nor are they for the purpose of swelling the revenues of the state.

I will agree in part with this statement—that prisons are not built for the purpose of creating revenues for the state. This must be a secondary consideration. The basis upon which all our criminal laws are founded, or at least should be founded, is the principle of reformation, and not that of vindictive justice. And to have reformation and not to have vindictive justice, we must have honest toil in these institutions; we must

have instruction; we must have industries that will appeal to the nature of the men who come to us; because society has kicked them and cuffed them about, has failed to teach them industry. If society has been negligent in this respect and refuses to give to each citizen an education and trade, and he falls by the wayside by violating the law, being sent to one of these institutions—when this happens, these young men must be given education, must be taught industry, must be so taught that they will become good American citizens when they go out of prison.

Can this be done without some kind of labor? Can this be done without proper instruction in trade and education which our labor friends say should not be done? Every man in charge of an institution and those who are interested in conducting them are anxious to put as little stuff upon the market as possible, but they do not consider it just nor right that a few labor people—and they are very few—should insist that prisoners should be thrown into idleness.

Work in the shop will confer upon the inmate precision; for under a competent instructor he must do the work that is laid out, definitely right or definitely wrong. Shop work, systematically carried out, engenders a habit of industry and observation that cannot be acquired in any other way. With the establishment of such a system in our institutions, we will give back to the people of this country a class of men who have an entirely different intellectual basis on which to resume their usual places in society.

The labor committee further states that the prisoner who works with machinery acquires no trade at which he can work when discharged. This is an assertion which is absolutely untrue. A large percentage of men who work as free men on the outside, work at a machine exactly the same as an inmate of an institution works at a machine, and the more competent he becomes at working this machine, the better chance he has for larger wages and promotion.

The committee further says that the prison record of the man bars him from admission to the ranks of free or skilled laborers. This is absolutely untrue. I can point to a score of ex-prisoners who are working in shops and in factories,

at the very highest wages that are paid, and in some instances they are working as foremen in the shop.

In their report they say that the result of teaching trades in institutions would be to mix among the annual recruits to our skilled industries, the entire number of discharged convicts who had worked at trades in prison. They say that this must not happen until the record of life in prison becomes a certificate of reform and present moral rectitude.

I wish to say that a man who is honestly in favor of such a sentiment, is not a true American citizen, and has not the welfare of all our people at heart; he does not stand upon that broad plane on which the constitution of this government and the constitution of our states are based. A man can reform in prison and become a decent citizen just as well as he can reform on the outside of the walls and become a man whom society respects. When the time comes that a man does so reform, whether he is in prison or out of it, society owes that man a duty, and that duty is to allow him to be employed to the best advantage and to permit him to stand alongside any free man who is a law abiding citizen. The mere fact that a man has been inside the prison walls is in itself no bar to his occupying a useful place in society after he is released.

What we need in this splendid nation of ours is more men and women who are practical teachers in and out of our institutions. Prevention is far more important than efforts to reform. Neither can this be accomplished without thoroughly trained teachers who are willing to make the business a life's work.

One of the great writers of this country said recently: "I never would be quite willing to admit that this country is enlightened until we cease the inane and parsimonious policy of trying to drive all the really strong men and women out of the teaching profession by putting them on the pay roll at one-half the rate or less, than what the same brains and energy can obtain elsewhere. In this year of our Lord, 1902, in time of peace, we have appropriated $400,000,000.00 for war and war appliances, and this sum is just double the cost of the entire public school system in America. It is not the necessity of economy that dictates our actions in this matter of education. We simply are not enlightened. But this thing can not always

last. I look for the time when we shall see set apart the best and noblest men and women of earth as teachers and their compensation will be so adequate that they will be free to give themselves for the benefit of the race without apprehension of a yawning almshouse."

ADDENDA TO THE REPORT BY MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE

VIEWS OF CHARLES MCCLAUGHRY, DEPUTY WARDEN, U. S. PRISON, ATLANTA, GA.

Law is the rule of conduct laid down by society for its members for the protection of society and its members.

Crime is a violation of law. Punishment is the suffering of the member at the hands of society as an enforcement of the law, and results in: 1. Protection to society against that particular criminal during the period of punishment. 2 Prevention of like crimes by those who are induced to entertain a sufficient fear of punishment.

These two effects of punishment are obtained in spite of the opposition of the criminal.

Another effect which may or may not be obtained, and which is at the pleasure of the criminal is his reformation.

Reformation is a word which may mean either one of two things:

1. A simple abandonment of violations of the statutes, which is all the law seeks or demands.

2. Regeneration of the heart and active reparation for injuries inflicted upon society and its members.

If we say of a man who is never heard from again after his discharge from prison that he "has reformed" we can make the claim only in the first sense, and the statistics with which we fill institutional reports should show this distinction.

"Discharged from parole as having abandoned crime" would be the proper way to put it, and would follow the same carefulness which characterizes the mental alienist who says of his patient, "improved."

Two things go to make the man a criminal—Act and Intent.

The criminal act may have its origin in:

Accident, ignorance, weakness, viciousness.

Weakness may be: mental, moral or physical.

Viciousness may arise from, environment, irreligion, greed, indolence or passion.

Intent may be wanting in some crimes. The man who is a criminal as a result of accident (that which comes upon him, or "falls upon" him suddenly) cannot be said to have criminal intent in the action which may, nevertheless, by the statute, be criminal, and such a victim of the law claims our utmost sympathy. He cannot be reformed, and does not need reform. *Conviction* is often punishment enough for him.

I can remember two long-haired Sioux Indians, who in the winter of '84 and '85, stole a steer in preference to starving to death in the fury of a Wyoming blizzard. Through the rapacity of some Shylock they each served a year at Joliet. Unable to comprehend anything spoken to them in English they endured a year's punishment in the darkness of complete bewilderment. Who committed the real crime in this instance? Samuel and Beaver were never heard from again, they were certainly punished and it is probable they never *reformed.* A suspended sentence or parole plan would have been the means of rendering justice to these unfortunates.

Those men who become criminals through ignorance are also to be pitied. For them much may be done both in prison and after their release. The man who is forced into learning to read and write during a couple of years of confinement has not been punished, and his way to reformation has been made easier. It is sometimes a question as to whether they have any really criminal intent in the things they do, and, in some cases of dense ignorance or youthful experience, it is absolutely wanting. Some twelve or fourteen years ago an old German groceryman in a little town in Illinois once refused to pay a boy of fourteen or fifteen years the weekly salary which was due him as errand boy. The boy wanted to go to the circus. The old German did not want him to spend his money on what was, in his eyes, foolish extravagance. The boy went to the

till and took out what was due him. The groceryman had him arrested. He was tried, convicted, sentenced and delivered to Superintendent M. at the Pontiac Reformatory. He ate his supper in the superintendent's private office, went back to his home on the next train, paroled to his own grief-stricken father, who had accepted sponsorship for him by telegraph. The only thing *technically illegal* about this affair was the kind-hearted and wise superintendent's action—but who shall say it was not *just?*

Intent may be transient or persistent, and, in either form, is present in most crimes resulting from weakness or viciousness.

For instance: A man mentally weak (I do not mean irresponsible, for those who have no reason are not criminals) may have the criminal intent and may be responsible for it and deserve punishment because he has not heeded training, warning and conscience, but has, in some way, believed that he could do or obtain this desired or coveted thing and escape the law. He may not have the power of mind that would lead him to conclude that escape was impossible, or he may have a mistaken notion of his own shrewdness, due to his mental inability to see his own deficiencies. Or, as is most often the case, some stronger and worse man has persuaded him that he has ability to succeed. He may be morally weak. That is, he may be strong enough mentally but does not care for dishonor, disgrace, nor *very much* for imprisonment.

He may be physically weak, unable to cope with poverty; may see those he loves in distress for material comforts; may be embittered at the "fate" which makes others easily successful while he fails, and thus be led into crime.

In either case the criminal intent may be transient or may become persistent, and when he is received into a reformatory prison (and all prison administrations should strive to use influences and methods which will induce their prisoners to reform) his crime and his life previous to conviction should be carefully studied in order to ascertain whether the criminal intent was transient or persistent; whether his ailment was acute or chronic, as our medical friends would put it.

Under the head of viciousness, I would characterize the

greatest hostility of the criminal to law and order—a determined service of the devil, and partaking of persistent criminal intent as well as action.

All the foregoing I have outlined in an effort to show that while *methods* may be general, the study and treatment, the training, the punishment or incarceration of the criminal, or even his extinction, must be individual and must depend on the degree of his criminality in its range from accident or ignorance down to the lowest depths of viciousness and the greatest danger to society.

Reformation is not a medicine which may be given in stated doses like squills. It is something like salvation. The man *in need of it* must *feel* the need and stretch out his hands to receive —no, not receive, that word indicates a passivity that will not do, that foreordains failure—to *grasp* reformation; to *seize* upon it and *hug it to his bosom* if he would have it.

And men who become wardens and superintendents are not always fitted by training or experience for the tasks which they assume. Successful penitentiary and prison management and the training of criminals toward reformation cannot be accomplished on theory and enthusiasm alone, and with wild experiment, any more than can a successful military campaign.

It takes, besides the best education a man may bring to the problem, caution and common sense, a willingness to learn, native tact and shrewdness, a knowledge of human nature (especially the criminal's habits of thought and action), or an ability to rapidly discover the influences to which such men are subject.

But, as to the guard or keeper, to secure the best results he should begin his prison service at the age of twenty-five—not younger. He should have a character sufficiently established to enable him to resist the contaminating influence of the criminality with which he comes in contact, and should be frequently given leaves of absence which would take him among people of normal tendencies and honest and decent ways of thinking and living. Let him begin at the rate of $60.00 per month, for you must *induce good men to enter a competition* for these places. Let him begin, with his

actual service, a course of study in subjects not too difficult, or technical, but leading to a preparation for just such thought and investigation as our National Prison Association and our National Conference of Charities and Correction pursue, for which text books might be made. Let him pass a physical and mental examination at the end of the first year, and, if found worthy in condition, attainment and conduct, let him receive $5.00 additional per month during his second year, or upon failure to show improvement in attainment, or on showing of misconduct or serious loss in physical condition, let him continue another six months or a year at his previous rate of pay and meet another examination for promotion or dismissal. Let this course be pursued for seven years, or until he shall have reached the maximum pay (for guard or keeper) of $90.00 per month. By that time he will be in thorough accord with the purpose of modern penology, or will have passed out into another field of life and work. With each service stripe on the sleeve of his coat, each stripe showing five years of perfect service, his personal pride and his sense of honorable service would be so interwoven in the fabric of his usefulness as to give the best results. If the prospect of an increasing salary and retirement at half pay at the age of sixty-two gave him encouragement to marry and settle down to a life of faithful service, and, later the feeling that he could afford to educate his children and provide by insurance for their welfare in event of disaster to himself, you would be placing the prisoners with whom he had daily contact under the influence of just such a man as we, in all our worry over their reformation, most desire them to become.

Prison rules for the convict will not, of themselves, work out his redemption—the clean, decent, rational, helpful *enforcement* of prison rules and methods with the help of religion always will do all that can be done (in prison) to induce men to "cease to do evil and learn to do well."

By this I mean that the enforcement of every prison rule and regulation; every effort to teach and lead, and to control and punish as well, should be dominated by the spirit of practical Christianity and with the desired end, the restoration of the prisoner to society as a *safe citizen*, always in view.

In the minds and imaginations of a great majority of people very well-informed on other subjects, a prison guard is a man who sits on a chair or stool in some little guard box high on a forbidden stretch of prison wall, is armed with a rifle and is ready to shoot any victim who boldly marches up to the said wall and attempts to climb over. His mission is believed to be merely the wounding or killing of the prisoner who is attempting to escape. In the minds of these same well-informed people the keeper is merely some gruff and grim giant who marches up and down the corridor with a bunch of keys dangling at his belt, and whose business is simply to open and shut doors with the nerve-racking clang so necessary to the novelist's description. He is not supposed to have either brains or heart. He is not supposed to have a home of his own with all the tender ties and heaven-born sentiments, hopes, fears, and longings which animate ordinary men.

With a strange persistence of the hatred and loathing which our plebeian ancestors of the feudal ages felt for the dungeon keepers who wrought with cruelty and blood-thirsty delight the will of the feudal lord on his helpless vassal or captured foeman, we believe without question that the prison keeper of today is likewise a monster of tyranny and cruelty.

Well, have we specially studied and trained him in order to insure his being something else?

Have we as yet formulated a rational plan of service and of training for that service; a system of education and a process of selection such as will bring the best available material into the best possible condition for the most important work of repressing crime by humane and considerate methods, by the teaching and training, the study and separation which secures, most fully, prevention of crime?

How do public schools become modern and "up-to-date" in their methods, furnishing most rapidly and accurately the training that the average citizen requires? Why, by a plan of education of the pupils, certainly, and a plan for the education and training of *teachers.*

An army would be a foolish aggregation of material if drill masters had not been drilled, if officers had not first been trained as soldiers, and if, at the very outset the best *material*

available for both soldiers and officers had not been carefully selected from the great mass of citizens. To obtain such material for any army, inducements must be offered which will attract the desirable—pay, honors, and a cause that will awaken devotion and self-sacrifice.

Are these things considered when we enlist an army of prison guards and keepers to engage in a service having duties, dangers and responsibilities similar to the military field, responsibilities and obligations similar to the educational field.

If we seek to train imprisoned convicts into paths of honor and rectitude, into enthusiastic compliance with the requirements of the law, the assumption of the duties of active supporters of law and order, how careful we should be that their teachers and trainers are not only enthusiasts, but careful and conscientious and sensible students in the line of service!

Now, I am not referring to wardens and superintendents alone, but to the rank and file; the men who make or break the reputation of their superiors, in turn, just as those wardens and superintendents succeed in training properly these subordinates or are prevented by politics or their own ignorance, egotism, lack of ability as students of human nature and leaders of men, from rendering that service to the state.

How shall we induce the convicted criminal to reform, or how shall we treat him if he does not reform?

By punishment—which may mean merely conviction, with a suspended sentence, or may range through all the lengths of sentence to—but not including—life imprisonment.

By discipline—which involves all the training in obedience and outward compliance with law and rule which is necessary in civil or prison life.

By treatment—which involves physical and mental improvement in matters of health, surgery, medicines, books, pictures, flowers, music.

By teaching—which includes mental and moral improvement along lines of knowledge and thought.

By kindness—which offers the love of the Master and shows the nature of the good Samaritan, but does not trans-

cend the bounds of reason and pass into the indulgence that invites imposition and fraud, or gives the unworthy what they do not deserve.

By aid—material and spiritual to those who desire, deserve and seek. Spiritual aid can only come *from* the most High but it may come *through* his servants.

By material aid I refer to the numerous opportunities which prison life offers, in which the prisoner's personal and business affairs may be advanced, his home conditions and relations improved by wise advice and counsel. The chance offered to the prisoner who has a wife and children to support—not to the homeless "crook" the Ishmaelite—to earn a few pennies each day for their use, would tend to enlarge that part of his nature which needs most encouragement and would be a strong anchor to his better resolutions, viz: The love of his home and family.

By timely release on parole—whenever by his striving for real self-betterment his courage and his desire to do better and to be better reach their full flood tide, and before the ebb of discouragement brings him back to the sand and rocks of despair.

To judge well of that moment all the wisdom, experience, skill and training that can be given to the prison warden, fit in mind and heart and soul for this great responsibility is not too much!

By proper retention in prison of those whose continued criminality renders them dangerous to society and makes freedom destructive to themselves.—This is no less a duty on the part of the paroling or releasing power, than is the course of those whom judgment and consideration decide to be possessed of the ability and desire to live right. This duty also involves a study of the imprisoned criminal that is minute and searching in its analysis of his character, and it requires an experience with and a knowledge of criminals that is wide and varied. A man's salvation may depend on his retention in prison when he is most loudly demanding his release. The

salvation of many others may be destroyed by the release of a vicious and active agent of the devil. This duty requires courage and fearlessness—the laying aside of the sentimentality that desires the praises of the vicious as well as those of the good.

The "Indeterminate Sentence and Parole" plan—or, as it might be more properly called, "The Maximum Sentence and Parole" plan—if it is *wisely, conservatively* and *fearlessly* administered, offers the best means of accomplishing those desired ends.

But there are two most important things which await the study of the penologist, and which bear directly on this whole question of criminals and their punishment and reformation.

1. The training of prison guards and keepers.

2. The study of penitentiary and prison architecture.

I do not believe in life sentence. If a murderer deserves execution, and, if, because of a brutal and murderous nature, the lives of others are menaced by his preservation alive, let him be executed.

But if you spare his life as worthy of preservation do not ask him to repent and reform and then deny him forgiveness or the acceptance of his reformation.

Give him, if his life is to remain his, a sentence for the number of years of his probable expectation of life (according to the Insurance Actuaries) and let him earn "good time" on that.

If he is ugly, malicious and dangerous he will settle upon himself an actual life sentence by the conduct that loses to him his "good time"—but if he can control himself and school himself to proper conduct, then give him Hope to guide him to the real forgiveness which comes from God. An examination of the records at the Wisconsin State Prison, Waupun, Wisconsin, in 1901, showed me that out of 234 life prisoners which that prison had received, 26 per cent had been released by death after an average incarceration of eleven years and ten months, while 69 5-10 per cent. had been released by legal process or pardoned, and 4 5-10 had become insane, after an average incarceration of eleven years and nine months.

Now, while the above plan does not remove the hope of pardon from those who are found to be deserving of pardon it does remove that awful condition in which a deserving and penitent man finds himself, when, after the first twelve years he finds that his friends are gone, his money gone, and that only a volunteer can stand before the executive to voice his appeal, and his last hope dies.

By the above plan he can, if he is deserving, see the possible attainment of his liberty—if he is treacherous and dangerous, his conduct will prolong his sentence in just proportion.

VIEWS OF MR. J. K. McLEAN, PRESIDENT OF THE PACIFIC THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA.

In my judgment, the punitive element in the treatment of criminals, while not to be altogether excluded, should be greatly minimized, and the reformatory element, while not made the exclusive one, greatly magnified. The convict should be treated as a sick person; morally sick of an affection in itself destructive and contagious. He should on that account be separated from his fellow men, both for his own good and for their protection. The great aim of the state should be not merely or mainly to punish him for his criminal act, but to cure him of criminal instinct and proclivity, and so in due time to restore him to society and to the enjoyment of all the rights and privileges of a desirable citizen. The state should not be content to carry him as an inert burden, but should exert itself to bring him back as a factor in its own support. To that end he should receive an indeterminate sentence; a sentence wholly indeterminate. The morally diseased man should go to prison for a stay as indeterminate as that of the man physically diseased when he goes to the hospital. There should be placed distinctly before him the possibility of coming out just as soon as he is to all appearance cured and the utter impossibility of ever coming out until he is cured or his body is brought out for burial. This for the good of the convict himself and for the protection of society. He should thus thoroughly understand from the beginning that his future lies wholly in his own hands—the what and when of it for himself to decide. He

should be placed and always kept in a cell by himself, not as a place of punishment but as a place of detention, until he can safely be trusted to be once more among his fellow men. This cell should be cut off from the possibility of communication with other cells, by missive, word, or sound. It should be wholesome, well lighted, but devoid of luxuries. His absolute needs should be well provided for, but not his tastes, and not at all his gratifications. He should be furnished with employment and be obliged to follow it for at least six hours a day; or, better still, if so much employment can be obtained for him, eight hours. No man can be morally reformed in idleness. His employment should be, preferably, in some line which should be helpful to him when he comes out on parole and after his final discharge. As wide an inclusion of trades and occupations as possible should be made for convicts, including by all means agriculture in all its forms and grades.

If the convict be illiterate, he should be drilled in the elements of education; if already literate, he should be given access to suitable books, advisedly selected by some competent person or persons; books of fiction, history, general literature, science, morals, etc. These should be distributed according to individual ability. The convict should be required to read them. He should undergo frequent examinations to ascertain whether he is reading them and doing it understandingly. This reading period should be not less than two hours a day. His day should be so arranged that apart from eating, bathing, sleeping, working, reading, there should remain daily hours of solitude—hours for thinking. Little intercourse should be allowed him with other convicts, and next to none with the outside world. He should be required to feel that by his criminality he forfeited all social rights and privileges, and that, while they are awaiting him, they are to be withheld until the last vestige of criminality has left him. Thus there should be placed before his mind the strongest motive towards reform. Just as soon as this time has arrived—or, judging by the convict's general spirit and behavior, seems to have arrived, he should be placed upon parole. At the prison gates he should be met by an agency, or commission, with suitable provision, established by the state or at least sustained by the state, to

afford him temporary shelter, welcome, cheer, encouragement, aid in finding work, in making acquaintance, and in getting back again into ways of self-respecting and acceptable citizenship. If in a first probation he should lapse, he should, unless the circumstances of his lapse seem to make his case hopeless, have a second parole; in most cases probably a third. These last, however, should be under somewhat more rigid conditions, and a longer period of segregation, possibly—although it would be undesirable to make here any hard and fast rule. Let warm sympathy always come hand-in-hand with cold necessity, but let neither encroach too much upon the other. In due time, as soon as the prisoner has demonstrated his ability and fixed resolution to refrain from criminality in all of its forms, he should be set at large and relieved of all disabilities. He is a cured man and should have full access to all which that embraces. So far as concerns the incorrigible:—As already suggested, having demonstrated his inability to be at large with safety to himself or to society, he should be put at work and kept at work such as his powers and age make possible. When it is no longer possible for him, by reason of age or infirmity, to work, it would be probable that he could no longer commit an act of criminality, and he should be remanded to the county hospital of the county from which he was sent up, or to such other place of shelter and oversight as might be provided for him.

VIEWS OF MR. JOHN B. MARTIN, OF BOSTON, MASS.

My views on the question of "Criminals: Their Punishment and Reformation" are such as I have personally put into practice. Punishment given by court after trial and conviction, generally sentence to prison, is in itself sufficient for crime committed. Reformation, if it can be accomplished, is possible only when the prisoner is treated as a human being, in such manner as to give his instincts full play. If they are for good or bad will soon become apparent. Cultivate if good; if bad, by lesson and example endeavor to win over to the right and bright side. Perseverance and hard labor are necessary, and I am sure if patience is used, good results will follow (perhaps not in every case, for there are incorrigibles in as well as out

of prison), sufficient in number, however, to warrant all the labor used in bringing about conditions of so much value to the individual and community.

VIEWS OF MR. MICHEL HEYMANN, OF NEW ORLEANS

Boys, with few exceptions, should never go to jail. Juvenile courts and probation should be perfect in every state; reform schools should be *real schools*, teaching each child a trade by which he can earn a living, as idleness is the cause of all misdemeanors and crime. Prisons and jails, reformatories and state prisons, should not only have for their object punishment, but reformation. Discharged prisoners should be taken care of when they leave their place of confinement, by well-organized societies, to help them to get work; for we all know that the *jail bird* is shunned by everybody and his only means of living is theft and other crimes.

VIEWS OF MR. BURNETT LEWIS, OF RICHMOND, VA.

Webster's definition of "criminal" is as follows: "A person who has committed an offense against the law; a violator of law, divine or human; more particularly a person indicted or charged with a public offense, and one who is found guilty by direct confession or proof." Consequently we see there are many different classes of criminals, but the particular class with which we deal are those who have served sentences behind prison bars. It gives me pleasure to state that the more I come in contact with these, the higher is my regard and love for them. Many men become criminals, not altogether through their own desire, but are led into it by others who wield over them a great influence.

Parents are, in a great measure, responsible for their children becoming criminals by the deception they practice, by their untruthfulness, and often by their own dishonesty.

I remember, on one occasion, waiting on a woman in a store who had with her her little boy ten or twelve years of age; when my back was turned she picked up an article and hid it beneath her shawl. I however, detected her, caused her to give it up, admonished her, and asked her if her little boy

grew to be a criminal whom would she have to blame? Now, this woman was not arrested. She was allowed to go free. Yet she was a criminal without the stigma attached to her that is attached to one who pays the penalty of his offense. What is true in her case, no doubt is true of many others, who, under similar circumstances, find their way into the penitentiary through practices learned in their own home.

Then, again, we have criminals who become so not in a day, in a week, or, possibly not in a year. By association with men whose morals are degrading, whose habits are bad, and whose influence over those honestly inclined is such that by degrees they yield and, from indulgence in the card game and faro bank, are induced to use money not their own. They expect to return it, but when unable to do so they commit forgery and find in a short time that they are criminals behind the bars. Now, what is our duty in cases of this kind? They are not sent to the penitentiary for punishment, but for the purpose of reforming them. How is that reformation to take place? One of the best ways in my judgment is to place in charge of our penitentiaries only such men as have in their hearts a desire to see the erring reclaimed. In our schools and colleges the best teachers are employed, those who have the ability to teach their pupils the special studies for which they are employed. I feel the same motives which induce colleges to employ the best talent they can find should prompt prisons to employ the best talent that can be obtained.

The man in a prison is subject to its rules. The guards of the prisoners are forming the characters day by day of the men who are under them. If they are God-fearing men, leading pure and holy lives, using chaste and pure language, admonishing, advising and encouraging those with whom they are associated day by day, the reforming influence will be so helpful, so encouraging, so effective that the gloom of the prison house will be dispelled, and a new light shed in the prisoners' hearts when they see the interest that is being taken in them, the example that is set before them, and the encouragement that is given them.

Do not understand me as casting any reflection whatsoever upon our own state institution, for I do not. On the contrary,

I feel that its official head is a man of sound judgment, a professor of religion, and a thorough and conscientious disciplinarian. While it is my pleasure to know a great many of the under officials, there are still many whom I do not know, and against whom I make no charge of dereliction of duty, but I know in some states that positions in the prisons are given through political influence, without special reference to the man's fitness, and I have heard of cases where the language used and the treatment shown has a tendency to harden and corrupt the criminals and drive away every desire on their part of doing better.

DISCUSSION

MR. NIBECKER—It seems to me that there is given a false and harmful impression to the public mind and to those who are engaged in different lines of social work than prison and reformatory work, by the terms in which punishment is so often spoken of, I do not believe any sane man or woman familiar with the criminal mind, if they will be just a little reminiscent concerning their own lives and that of their children—will say that punishment has no place in dealing with the criminal. The factor of punishment and its possibilities, has made the lives of men and women in the world, different from what they would have been had there been no such thing as an effect that would follow cause as inevitably as darkness follows the setting sun. I do not believe that those engaged in prison work attempt to convey the impression, but the impression is given, that punishment has so little place in the scheme of human policy that it is distinctly negligible. I do not refer to punishments, I refer to punishment.

It is not to our disadvantage if we find ourselves under the conditions that have been made by natural law since time began. It is not to our discredit if we find ourselves in line with those who have taught us that men are persuaded by the terrors of the law as well as by the glories of incentive. Let us not make the mistake of giving to the world the idea that we are so chimerical as to believe law should not be so made as to punish crime. Let us not give out the idea that the law-breaker is only a poor and unfortunate creature whom we pity most heartily, and are perfectly ready to forgive if he does it again. Let us make our law and our ideal of law like the great moral law which is self-executing, that the right shall bear its sweet fruit and the wrong shall pucker our mouths with its bitter taste.

As regards the reformation of criminals, the one great characteristic in the criminal that we must combat is the fact that he is an offensive individualist. He does not recognize your existence or my existence or your or my rights, or the rights of anybody in the world. There is only himself in the world. For him all things must be subservient. If we are to reform him, the first thing we must do is make him actively social. This can be done by education in a community where he shall learn that he can be advantaged by the work of others, and that he can advantage the community by his own work.

Then again, he is not self-governing. We don't govern ourselves when we obey the laws that we and others together make for ourselves. We are governed. No more do men or boys govern themselves when they obey the law that they and others make together, to control themselves. They are simply obeying the strict letter of the law that makes the line of their con-

duct as straight as though it were marked by the legislature of the state or the congress of the nation. The self-government that fits a man to live to his own advantage and the advantage of others in the community is the government of himself outside of the lines that may be drawn by another for his conduct. I have in some places had handed to me a chart of a man's conduct, giving in one column the things that may be done and that may not be done, and in the other the result of the doing or not doing. A man may obey such injunctions and not be self-governing. I do not believe that such definite, unchangeable, rigid, iron rails are ever to be laid, on which a man shall run the car of his being when he is learning to control himself. His self-government, if he is to be self-governing at all, must be by his being required to have a proper standard; and if he does not have a proper standard, let the unpleasant result follow, as it does in everything else when things go wrong. Let him be required of his own motion to determine what conforms to that standard, using his own judgment and initiative. And if his judgment and initiative are wrong the first time, let the result be as if he were attempting to take up a piece of hot iron. Then we have self-government.

The Boys' Republic, the boys' school, is no more self-governing than you or I when we take the right-hand side of the street in driving, because the law requires it. We don't choose. The law makes us go down that side. So in every-day conduct of life we do things because someone governs us. If a man is to be self-governing, he must enter into these things where he can choose and then be responsible for his act.

MRS. J. ELLEN FOSTER, of Washington—The government of the United States, whose representative I chance to be to-night, in its care of criminals is under a disadvantage which the individual states do not bear, the disadvantage of having no regular constituency in the homes of the people from which the prisoners come. For instance, in the state of Virginia where we now are, in the penitentiary—which I am informed is doing good work with the facilities which are furnished it by the people of Virginia—the men who are there tonight have come from the homes of Virginia, and all through the state there are men and women and little children who are thinking of and caring for those who are in yonder prison. In our two federal prisons—the one at Leavenworth and the one at Atlanta—are gathered men who have come from all parts of this country. They are a harder set of men than are the men in your penitentiaries, because crimes against the government of the United States are high crimes. They are not the petty criminals, they are the men who coolly and calmly and deliberately commit crime. They are forgers, counterfeiters and highway robbers, and men who have committed acts of great violence, crimes against our postal system and our banking system. Many of the young men guilty of these crimes are letter carriers and special delivery boys. But nobody cares for the United States criminal in the sense that someone does for the state criminal.

Federal prisoners are also brought to the state penitentiaries. We have today something over three thousand federal prisoners in this country. Of these, fourteen hundred are in state institutions and nearly two thousand in the two federal prisons. So you see the jurisdiction of the general government is divided. It is not compact as that of a state, so it is a little harder to get at.

The prison system of the United States is under the control of Congress, and if you have a more unwieldy and harder mass of individuals in any of your states than the Congress of the United States, I have not yet discovered it. And while great and good things are done by our representatives at Washington, it is very hard to get a thing done.

Our reform schools in the District of Columbia are under the joint control of the federal government and the District of Columbia. As you know we have a most anomalous system of government in the District

of Columbia. A woman there counts as much as a man, because no one votes in the District of Columbia, and we are on perfect equality.

Men and women of this Conference of Charities and Correction, do you realize that the work you have in hand, the care of the delinquent and defective and criminal classes, marks the high-water mark of modern civilization? Do you recognize that you may test the civilization of any people of any period in history by its treatment of those classes? If our Divine Lord were here tonight, and could go about among you, I think he would say, "These are My friends, for they do whatsoever I commanded them." I have to encourage myself that way. I have to keep myself up to the point of work by the glorious enthusiasm which comes from accepting this exalted privilege.

I was told to say something about guards in the prisons. In this class of work, the actual contact we have with the subject, is through the guards in the prisons and reform schools. Boards of control may lay down the most approved system of control, these gentlemen who spoke concerning the reformatory methods may lay out the most beautiful plans of work, but it has to be applied by some man who is hired at from $50 to $70 a month. The guard meets the men in the cell and in the shop and in the school of letters or the trade school, and upon his personal character and the representation which he makes, depends largely the reformation of the convict. It is personality that is needed. This guard who is a man, is for the time being, the law to the individual prisoner. To my mind there is no greater need in the prisons today than a higher order of guards. You who are students of sociology, you who are disciples of Christ, do you know that in human advance it is personality acting upon personality that develops the world? Hearts are needed, and heads are needed, and wisdom is needed and trained ability to adapt the remedy to the individual man. Wherever social workers talk about the administration of charities in our great cities, the burden of their cry is—trained workers. And are not training schools the distinguishing mark of our educational system today? We need more of them in our prisons. It is not strange because the idea of reformation is comparatively new in the science of penology. Formerly the idea was to get a grip on the man and hold him down a certain length of time and then remove the grip and let him go, and the question was how long he would stay out before he would be back. Now the desire is to put into him something during the period of his training which shall preclude his coming back, which shall make a good citizen of him. I do earnestly commend to all of you ladies and gentlemen present here who are in any way connected with this great movement, that you study the work of creating a higher standard in the guards of our prisons.

Of course, back of it is the pay. We cannot command very high service unless we at least give reasonable wages, and good wages have not been paid in the prisons.

I have had the honor of working in this country among those who are seeking to better the conditions of workers in factories. The anti-child labor laws have been an interesting study to me. At one time I met a company of mill men in South Carolina who had done wonderful work in their line. The homes were ideal, there were schools and gymnasiums, kindergartens, Women's Christian Temperance Unions and Christian Endeavor Societies, and everything in those factory villages. I was overcome with delight. I said: "You must permit me to tell you how thankful we women are that you are doing such splendid work for your mill operatives." I was just as eloquent as I knew how to be, but those gentlemen were very stern. They didn't respond to my enthusiasm. As I continued my eloquence up to the point when I saw that it was really troubling the gentlemen, one gentleman arose and said: "Excuse me, madam, you don't understand." I said "Yes, I understand, I have been there, I know all about it." "But you

don't understand," he continued, "we only do it because we get better results." I said: "Excuse me, I don't understand." He said: "Results, madam, we run our mills for results." Then he talked about the price of cotton, and how they made so many more yards of fine goods when they did those things for their operatives than when they did not.

If you want results in the penal system of the United States you will need to follow these philanthropists in the cotton mills.

I suppose there is no man among prison men today who stands higher than Major McClaughry, who is at the head of our Federal Prison in Leavenworth. He is considered by the government the best prison man. What do they mean? The man that can use his prisoners to the best advantage. There must be an economic return to labor. God told us to live here, to increase and multiply and subdue the earth—subdue it. Every time a man takes coal out of the earth and puts it in somebody's house to warm him, he is subduing the earth for the benefit of man. Every time a man digs a drain or lays out an irrigating scheme, he is subduing the earth. Trade schools must teach trades. Gymnastics are for the development of bone and sinew and fibre, but they develop that the man may do something, that he may cause something to come to pass, that he may plant a tree where there wasn't any so that he may make the dead plain yield a tree. That is God's plan. It is not right that in our penitentiaries our men should build beautiful brick walls, just to learn how, and then tear them down. They ought to be building walls for keeps. I believe the labor people of this country are not against us. They think they are, but they haven't quite found themselves. We have not separate interests. As Americans we are all one. We are trying to subdue the country our fathers gave us here.

Men and women, you are at the head of tide water. You are where the great sea of God's infinite love for the world He made for the creatures within whose hearts He wants to dwell, comes surging up. The glow you feel when you save a poor woman or a poor man is the heart beat of the great sea of His love. Personality must teach personality if anything is to be wrought with humanity. So I dare say, in this temple of worship,* that the human mind and the human heart never comprehended God until Jesus Christ in person came to the earth, until He took little children in His arms and blessed them, until He was good to sinners and wept over them, until His love saved them. And as we follow in the work which we are considering here, we are following Him.

REFORMATORY DISCIPLINE AND INDUSTRIES

BY JAMES A. LEONARD, SUPERINTENDENT, STATE REFORMATORY, MANSFIELD, OHIO

All persons having to do with penal institutions of any character agree that some form of regular employment for prisoners is highly desirable, and in reformatory institutions absolutely necessary.

In a Northern climate where farming operations can be conducted during a part of the year only, it is necessary to have shop or factory employment. In shops and factories

* The conference sessions were held in St. Paul's church.

prisoners should be employed with a two-fold object; the one, economic, and the other, educational-reformatory.

In some institutions there has been an effort made to keep inmates busily employed in mere practice work, the products of their labor being taken down and worked over, or destroyed. The only defense of this stultifying and wasteful system lies in whatever skill and improved habit may come to inmates. This system has been found sadly lacking in motive and inspiration, and does not appeal to the good sense or imagination of officers or inmates.

Productive shop or factory work for utilitarian output must be carried on under one of three systems commonly known as (1) Prison Contract Labor Policy, (2) State Account System, (3) State Use Plan. The most satisfactory and least objectionable, we believe to be the State Use Plan. The State Account System contemplates the manufacture of articles for state use, and for sale in the open market. The State Use Plan contemplates the manufacture of articles in prisons exclusively for state use. The prison products do not under this system enter the general markets in a competitive way.

The advocates of the State Use Plan propose to busily employ all inmates of penal and corrective institutions in the manufacture of articles for state use. Prison manufacture would under this plan take a very wide range. The aim is:

First—To supply all articles for other state institutions that would otherwise be bought in the open market, shoes, clothing, brooms, brushes, fittings, castings and many lines of building supplies.

Second—If the needs of the institutions were not sufficient to keep all prisoners of the state employed, the system would be extended to include state departments, the printing of all stationery supplies, the preparation of all books of record; in short all state printing, also, the manufacture of furniture for state departments, and such other supplies as may be required.

Third—It is proposed by the advocates to extend this general system, if found necessary, to the political units known

as the county and municipality. Those who have gone into this matter most fully think that it will never be necessary to employ prison labor in furnishing municipal supplies; that there is scarcely a state in the Union in which the prison population is so large as to make this necessary.

The State Use Plan has been recently introduced in a small way in the State of Ohio, and is being extended as rapidly as conditions will permit. At the present time, the State Use and the Contract systems are working side by side in the Ohio State Reformatory.

It is hardly necessary to say that the well known Contract system contemplates the sale of the labor of inmates either at so much per diem or on the Piece Price Plan.

My studies of prison labor problems antedate my experience as a prison administrator. These studies and my practical experience both lead me to favor the employment of the inmates of any prison, and more especially reformatory institutions, on the State Use Plan rather than to contract for their labor on either the per diem or piece price plan.

My reasons for taking this position, briefly stated, are as follows:

First—The unfortunate or unworthy classes of society, as represented by the institution population, should not be exploited for the benefit of private enterprise, but should, on the contrary, be employed in the most advantageous manner for the benefit of the state, in order that the profit from their labor may be applied in reducing the burden of taxation and the benefits thus distributed to all the people of the state.

Second—Even the dullest young men in a prison apprehend more or less clearly the difference between being exploited by a contractor and being employed by the state. For the state, young men as a rule work industriously, cheerfully, contentedly, and without complaint as to the character or amount of labor exacted. When hired out to a contractor, while they may work industriously and intelligently, they do not do so cheerfully and contentedly. There constantly crops out in refusal to work, unsatisfactory service, and resentment against foremen and contractors the ever-present thought that increased effectiveness of their labor inures to the benefit of

the contractor, whose paramount concern is other than their reformation or future well-being.

Third—The employment of men on the contract plan necessitates the presence in the prison population of a group of citizens as foremen, instructors, clerks, etc., who are not sworn officers of the state, and who do not feel under obligation to give that degree of helpful co-operation so necessary in working out reformatory methods, and who, too often, are provocative and irritating in their manner, thus stirring up strife. On the other hand, they are frequently too indulgent and over-intimate with young men in custody; both extremes being subversive of discipline.

Moreover, it is necessary under a contract, to establish standards of efficiency, "tasks" in various lines of work. This is necessary from the standpoint of the contractor, and it is no less necessary from the standpoint of the administrator of the prison. From the contractor's point of view, it is necessary in order to make the business profitable; from the administrator's point of view, it is necessary in order that the young men maintain habits of industry, energy and efficiency that will fit them for taking their places when released as desirable and efficient wage-earners. Otherwise, by their natural resentment against the contract system and desire to do no more than necessary, and perhaps aided by natural indolence of disposition or temperament, they would become mere triflers and dawdlers. To maintain these standards, or "tasks," it is necessary, therefore, for the discipline of the institution to be brought to bear upon those who fail of the requirements. The resentment of inmates is then transferred from the contractor to the guards in charge, the foremen of the shop, and the officer presiding over the prison court, and finally the superintendent and board of managers. In short, the superintendent, representing the state, cannot compel, through the disciplinary methods of the institution, the young men to meet the requirements of the various standards, or "tasks" without being to a greater or less degree suspected of being animated in his zeal by a desire to increase the profits of the contractor.

As we have in the Ohio State Reformatory both systems

working side by side, we have had an exceptional opportunity of noting the radical difference. Almost any degree of pressure can be brought to bear upon the young men working on the State Use Plan without calling forth resentment, and in a majority of cases inmates enter with great enthusiasm into the accomplishment of the work undertaken.

We have never paid young men working on the State Use Plan any part of their earnings. Under the contract system they get 20 per cent., yet there is constant pressure on the part of those employed on the contract to secure employment on the State Use Plan, and it seldom happens that a boy employed on the State Use Plan desires to be employed on contract labor, nothwithstanding that there is a small amount of earnings that would be placed to his personal credit. This attitude of mind on the part of inmates toward the contract system is not due to the character of the contractors, or their particular methods. It resides in the principles set forth at the beginning of this paper.

Fourth—The fact that the contractors may be broadminded, just in the matter of standards of work, careful to protect life and limb, considerate in the selection of their employees, and also void of offense in interfering in matters of discipline, does not remove the objections to contract labor in a reformatory. All these things serve to offset the objections to contract labor, but they do not remove them.

Fifth—It has sometimes been said that there would be no objection to contract labor if the contractor paid for inmate labor the prevailing wage scale outside of prisons. If this condition were insisted upon, of course, there would be no contract labor, as there would cease to be a motive on the part of the contractors to establish industries within prison walls. It should be borne in mind, however, that the more nearly the price of prison labor approximates that paid on the outside, the greater necessity there would arise for exacting, by increasing the standard "task," the last possible unit of output from the labor of prisoners thus employed. This would greatly intensify the difficulties of administration, and, in the minds of the inmates, the contractors and those engaged in the management of the institution would be blended as a common

group bent upon exploiting them for the sake of gain—gain not for the community at large, but for those who establish and enforce the standard tasks.

A man of wide experience as a prison contractor stated to me recently that his firm would be glad to see prison labor in their line of manufacture abolished throughout the land, so that they might employ free labor and conduct their business under normal conditions, free from the annoying restrictions imposed upon the prison contractor in the various states.

For reasons above set forth, I believe that contract labor is particularly objectionable in a reformatory institution. Reformatory management to be successful in leading bad young men to something better, must be above even the suspicion that rises all too readily in the criminal mind. Prison officials must not alone be free from any selfish interest in the industries of the inmates, but they must be free from any appearance of such interest.

On the other hand, I believe that the employment of inmates of a reformatory on State Use Plan is the best possible way to make the educational and ethical value of labor most effective. Working on State Use Plan not only frees the management of any suspicion of profit at the expense of inmates, but affords rare opportunities for appealing through mind and muscle to the best civic instincts of these young men under training.

If prison management should take counsel of its ease, comfort, and convenience of administration, it would invariably favor the contract system, as this method relieves the management of all responsibility for the maintenance of a complex industrial institution, the assembling of material, process of manufacture and disposition of product. The only concern of the management under the contract system would be the proper care and discipline of the prisoners. While on the other hand, it is clear from the foregoing statement that an institution—say a great state reformatory, administered as an industrial and educational institution, means greatly increased responsibility and a corresponding increase of ability and resourcefulness. We believe, however, that the increased effectiveness that comes to such an institution as a re-

formatory agency, from operating under conditions such as are provided by the State Use Plan, thoroughly warrants the management in cheerfully accepting the increased cares and responsibilities.

DISCIPLINARY VALUE OF RESPECTIVE METHODS OF EMPLOYMENT

As already indicated, we believe that the employment of prison inmates in the production of articles for state use has higher disciplinary value than can be obtained from the contract labor method.

It is contended by some that the contract system results in better order, closer application, and a higher rate of efficiency of labor because of the double pressure from the contractor and the prison management than it is possible to obtain under the State Use Plan. This claim is not without some facts to justify it, but my observation leads me to believe, that the discipline under the contract system is essentially repressive and while it may bring good results economically, it has comparatively small value in favorably affecting character. On the other hand, the employment of prison population on the State Use Plan admits of a wide range of manufacture involving a high degree of skill in many lines. This tends to quicken the intelligence, supplies rational motive, stimulates ambition and cultivates self-respect. The discipline maintained under these conditions is not only more easily enforced, but results in a prison atmosphere much more favorable to the moral agencies and influences brought to bear upon the inmates.

The ideal discipline in a penal institution must include methods of strong natural pressure that restrain, support, sustain, until by a process of substitution, self-respect, self-control, good motives and established habits do their perfect work. The best that could be claimed for the contract system as it affects discipline is that it has a repressive value that "restrains and supports," but it falls short in cultivating the essential elements of "self-respect, self-control and good motives."

The importance of securing proper industrial activity for the inmates of a prison is not fully realized. The young

criminal may be awakened to a new intellectual day by the educational processes of the reformatory school. He may be quickened to a new spiritual life by the inspiration of moral or religious truth, but he stands secure only when his feet rest upon the rock of economic independence. "Labor stands on golden feet," is a proverb, the truth of which can be realized by the reformatory inmate only after industrial training has given creative vision to his eye and constructive skill to his hands.

We believe that the State Use Plan is the best means of employing criminals, and especially the young men in reformatory institutions, so as to remove from the mind of the prisoner, his personal friends, and the public at large, even the suspicion that the man is sent to prison, or kept there, that he may be exploited for private gain, while at the same time it secures for him while in custody the highest moral value of his industrial activity.

THE DISCIPLINE AND TRAINING OF GIRLS IN INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS

BY MISS SARAH L. MONTGOMERY, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

The cottage system with its opportunity for emphasis on wholesome, sane family life, as nearly as that can be attained where there is no real home, naturally is the unit or point of departure in industrial training. The comfortable and happy ordering of the life in the cottage is the medium by which the children receive their training in household arts. Cooking, house-cleaning, sewing, laundry work, care of garden and yard, initiate their efforts to master the staple and orthodox elements of a woman's education. This training in household arts, with the daily school work, following as closely as possible the state system of public school grades and subjects extended throughout the year, gives to the children a truer, all-round training than the average public school children receive at the hands of the state.

But I would exalt far above this traditional side of institutional training, above all the demands of business, reports and the multitudinous details devolving upon a superintendent,

"the cry of the children"—the human side of the work. Many an institution is so highly organized, so "reported" at every turn, that the personal needs of the individual child are forgotten, are pushed aside in the daily grind. I would appeal for the discipline of these children—the discipline not of hard and fast rules, the old time penal system of rewards and punishments, but the discipline which comes from "the subordination to the rational." This subordination must be the voluntary acquiescence on the part of the child in what has heretofore been denied him—his own personal identification with what is reasonable and right. The history sheets of industrial schools reveal the utter lack of opportunity these children have had for any education in simple right. An experience of thirty years in children's work, as educator and probation officer, has increasingly convinced me that no class of children are more quickly and generously responsive to simple right than the class of children committed by the courts to industrial schools. The difficulty in their lives has been that there has been lack of appeal to the right. It may be that they are over-developed emotionally, and we must take them as we find them. This over-development is in many cases the point of contact by which the only lever lifting to higher action may be applied, but properly to reach these children individual work is necessary.

I would yield to no one in recognition of the necessity and value of a superintendent's acquaintance with the detailed running of his institution, but the children are the center and circumference of his work and the human side of the institution is of first and engrossing importance. The acquaintance with each child, her troubles and difficulties, her ambitions; this is the work for which a superintendent is chosen, or should be chosen, and the one who neglects getting hold of the children by personal conference and acquaintance, neglects the vital work for which that great mother, the state, has established the school. It is dangerously easy to exalt the organization of an institution above the daily moral and spiritual needs of the children; it is dangerously easy to work in masses and groups; so wearing to hear day after day and week after week the troubles and trials, petty as they often are, of these children; and yet for myself a day spent in such work compensates for many weary

and apparently profitless hours spent in the more mechanical and yet not more necessary work of the institution details. In my own work I try always to impress upon the children that they are not in the school for punishment, they are there for training; that every lady in the school is there to help the children to get a fair start in life. Never in all the work have the institution's little rules and regulations been exalted, but always the child's big human need. These children ask for bread. How often do we give them a stone? It is a great pity to break dishes, but how much does it count for a girl's eternal salvation and regeneration to be told she gets "five off" for breaking a dish, "five off" for having a pin in her belt? Wasn't it Mohammed who said "Had I but two loaves, I would sell one and buy hyacinths to feed my soul?" Many an institution worker has starved her own soul by that everlasting "five off" and unquestionably has acquired what William T. Harris calls "pedagogic cramp in the soul," and alas for the children, a pedagogic cramp in the soul prevents any "sweetness and light" finding way into their lives.

I never look into the children's faces without feeling anew the abiding truth of Wordsworth's lines: "We live by admiration, hope and love." Poor children, their undoing has been that their hearts go out to the first affection offered, and untried and undiscriminating, only too often they fall victims to their own longing for sympathy. Once to create, or to revive, I should say, in their hearts, shadowed only too early by sorrow and sin and suffering, those haunting allegiances of "admiration, hope and love," is to set up a tendency which will re-create their lives. Young in years, they are children in thought and maturity, and their normal uplift must begin on the only plane where it can be sustained and the truths of psychology are doubly true when it comes to the regeneration of children who have suffered as these children have at the hands of society. We may teach them how to cook and wash and iron and sweep and scrub and work in the garden, and every action honestly performed leaves a corresponding influence on the child's character, but while we are doing these things, pray let us never forget the haunting cry of these children, and that is for light and life.

"A voice, a vision. I believe in visions, in the deep, limpid, mysterious springs of conduct. I believe in visions—in the unreasoning progress—an advance in the way of life not calculated but made in unselfish faith with eyes lifted up from the vulgar, swarming, assailing advantages of existence. I remember the beginnings of their lives and I know that out of the hopelessness some beauty has been wrought in the way of the God of us all."

And in the face of their need, which appeals to every one here, I think daily:

"Oh the tragedy that lies
Right before unthinking eyes.
In some dull Plebeian face.
Oh the sorrow and the longing
Of some soul that we are wronging
With the charge of common-place.
If thy blind eyes will not see,
Hear the voice that speaks to thee.
He must serve who would be wise,
Lest before our human kneeling
Some slave eyes should lift revealing
Christ our King in lowly guise."

ROAD BUILDING BY INMATES OF STATE PRISONS

BY ROBERT W. WITHERS, MEMBER OF THE LEGISLATURE OF VIRGINIA, SUFFOLK, VA.

By agreement with the chairman, I am to treat this subject from the view point of the state rather than that of the experienced penologist.

How to employ our criminals and how to build good roads have been two perennial questions which have arisen to annoy our statesmen time out of mind. We in Virginia, after a two-years' experiment, believe we have gone a long way in solving both of these questions by adopting the most obvious solution thereto—by employing the convicts in building roads.

The questions, what shall we do with our prisoners and how shall we construct good roads are, it is true, quite complex and

many sided. But, as is often the case, we may be led by our prejudices to seek a complex answer to a complex question, when there lies immediately at hand a simple and effective answer which was discarded or overlooked because of its very simplicity. Many of us set out to find the answer to a complex question with a preconception, which is usually a misconception, that it can only be found in one direction; thus many of our charitable undertakings come to naught because, in our eagerness to make our hobby work, we leave out of view many of the factors in the problem.

As Horace Greely said, "The way to resume specie payment is to resume," so the way to build roads and employ your convicts is just to employ your convicts in building your roads. The Virginia good-roads laws, first enacted in 1906, which have for their foundation principle the working of convicts on the public highways, are in many respects unique. So far as I am advised, there is no other state in the Union having laws like ours. Ours is largely an experiment, but an experiment which after two years' trial, has so far exceeded the most sanguine hopes of its strongest friends, that we may be pardoned for exhibiting some degree of enthusiasm for the system.

As the draftsman of these measures, I must confess at the outset, that their primary object was to build good roads throughout the state.

Without exception, the greatest need of the American people today is good roads. The condition of the highways of any locality affects in some remote degree, every citizen of the nation. Over ninety per cent. of the roads in the United States are earth roads, and many of them become all but impassable during the winter and spring months. For this reason the food products of the farms must be rushed to market, or to storage at some accessible point, as soon as harvested in the fall. This entails serious and sometimes disastrous disarrangements in the commercial world. The railroads cannot supply sufficient cars to meet their demands, and, as a consequence, are forced to buy thousands of cars that at other times lie idle on their storage tracks. The bankers must, in the fall, withdraw their funds from other channels of trade and be prepared to furnish the enormous sums, nearly equaling the value of the total farm

products, "to move the crops," resulting in a total or partial paralysis of our entire trade. The financial panic through which we passed last October was, more than to anything else, due to taking much needed money from other channels of trade to supply the ready money needed to move the crops.

As a necessary consequence of this congestion of farm products at one period of the year, the market for such products is driven down sometimes almost to the cost of production and the farmers of our land, the source of a large part of our national wealth and still constituting the bulk of our people, are kept in comparative poverty.

Because of bad roads, the farm products must be moved in the fall, when the roads are passable, to some accessible point on the railroads from which they can be distributed to meet the steady demand throughout the year. To store these food stuffs large elevators and granaries must be erected and the cost of storage added to the price to be paid eventually by the consumer.

When it is remembered that much that we use, nearly all that we wear, and all that we eat must at some time in its history pass over a country road, we begin to realize the personal interest each of us has in the country roads of the whole country.

The United States Department of Agriculture, in a recent bulletin, informs us that the actual cost of hauling, per ton, a mile, is sixty-four cents over dry, sandy roads; thirty-nine cents over earth roads of the usual muddy, and rutty variety; eleven and nine-tenths cents on broken stone roads in ordinary condition, and only eight cents on broken stone roads in good condition. It cost the farmers of this country $21,650,000 to haul the wheat crop of 1906 to the railroads. This figure could easily have been cut in half if good roads had been available, beside the avoidance of other consequential evils already alluded to. Had all the corn, wheat and cotton crops of 1906 been hauled over good instead of over bad roads, the producers of them would have saved—in good money in their pockets—the stupendous sum of twenty-seven million dollars.

Nor is this all. Of what value is our boasted public school system if the school-house is at one end and the children are

at the other end of a road that is, during the school year, all but impassable to children who have not almost reached the limit of school age? I do not know conditions in other states, but in Virginia, of rural children of school age, not more than thirty per cent. are in average daily attendance. Think of it; less than one-third of our country children go regularly to school. And this non attendance is due, as much as to any other cause, to the difficulty of travel over the roads in winter.

Bearing the burden of this enormous mud tax; his one crop, his only source of revenue for a whole year, forced into market as soon as harvested and sold at a price fixed by competition with the entire world; his very children growing up in ignorance and each generation showing a smaller percentage of literacy than its predecessor, there is small wonder that the farmers of Virginia have become dissatisfied with their condition and have encouraged, rather than hindered, their sons and daughters to leave the old farms and seek their fortunes in the cities of the commonwealth, or of the sister states.

Year by year, our rural population has stood still, or actually shrunk. Farm values have lessened; tax values and revenues have grown relatively smaller; and tens of thousands of acres of finest soil have been allowed to grow up in bushes and briars, the habitat of hare and fox whom none disturbed, for the boys have gone to the city for work and the old folks can take no time from the hard struggle for life, for the old-time hunt with horse and hound.

Public men in Virginia viewed these conditions with alarm, and in January, 1905, a handful of Virginians met by agreement in Danville, and formed the "State Good Roads Bureau," which had for its object the initiation and conduct of a campaign of education looking to the betterment of our roads by three means: (1) The enactment of state laws creating a State Highway Commission, and authorizing the working of jail and penitentiary convicts on the country roads; (2) Federal appropriations for good roads, and (3) The capitalization of the annual county road funds.

Many of the states, principally the New England and North Atlantic States, have for several years given state aid in the

form of money appropriations, running up as high as five million dollars a year in New York, to encourage the building of good roads. This state aid has proven wonderfully stimulating and has given the good roads movement an impetus it otherwise would not have had, probably in a quarter of a century.

But however rich in history Virginia may be, ever since that disastrous war between the states, when her soil was made the amphitheatre for the bloodiest tragedy enacted in modern times, she has been financially poor. Arising from the conflict bleeding and mangled, her best men killed or wounded, her property destroyed and wrecked, her social and political structure revolutionized, and burdened with a debt of thirty million dollars, the interest of which alone absorbed more than one-sixth of her total revenues annually, Virginia confronted the greatest battle for the preservation of Anglo-Saxon supremacy and the maintenance of Christian civilization, that any people, since the days of 1607, ever fought out and won.

Money aid from the state, in sums sufficient to be of any advantage, was for us impossible. Yet state aid in some form was imperatively demanded if we were to stimulate interest in road building. Virginia had no money to give to the counties to aid and encourage them in the building of good roads, but she had its equivalent—labor, in the persons of her convicts who year after year were maintained in idleness in the jails, or in employment for others in the penitentiary, by the taxes raised by the very people crying out most loudly for road improvement.

The people naturally complained of a system which made the honest tax paying citizen work harder to supply the means to convict and support the criminal, than the criminal worked as punishment for his crime. It was pointed out that the state could support the criminals on the roads for about fifty cents per day, and that the value of their work would be worth, at free labor prices, about a dollar per day, thus at a cost of fifty cents, a large part of which she was already having to spend anyway, the state could give to the counties a dollar's worth of road improvement. After a good deal of persuasion, the Legislature passed a law creating the State Highway Commission and a law establishing the State Convict Road Force. Under these

two laws the state offers to the counties the brains and labor, if the county will raise the tools and material, necessary to build a good road. The State Highway Commission is composed of the professors of civil engineering in the three best engineering schools in the state, who, in fact, constitute a sort of consulting board, and who serve without pay, and the State Highway Commissioner, whose office is in the Capitol and who has under him a clerk and such assistants as are necessary. This Commission constitutes the brains offered the counties by the state. It has general supervision of all the roads in the Commonwealth, and every citizen or official can at any time call upon the Commissioner for information and advice upon road construction.

The Superintendent of the Penitentiary has absolute charge of the State Convict Road Force. Upon him rests the burden of recruiting the ranks of the road force from the jails and courts of the Commonwealth, to fill the places of those whose terms have expired. He hires and discharges the guards, sees to the transportation of prisoners, looks after their bodily comfort and discipline, provides their food, superintends their work, and in a word, has the care and management of the whole force. I cannot overlook this opportunity to give to our worthy Superintendent, Captain Morgan, hearty praise for the splendid manner in which he has discharged the duties of his office. Had he been a less capable or earnest worker, many of our well laid plans would have failed.

All prisoners in Virginia are divided into two classes, felons and misdemeanants. Before these enactments all felons, upon conviction, were sent to the penitentiary in Richmond and most of them were hired to the Davies Boot & Shoe Company for forty-two cents per day, the state feeding, guarding and clothing them. Others, usually the sick and old ones, were sent to the state farm or performed such labor in the penitentiary as was necessary to keep it in order,—make the prisoners' clothes, etc. The misdemeanants were kept in idleness in county and city jails. These misdemeanants are of two classes—those who offend against state laws and those who break the municipal ordinances. The state pays the jailors for the keep of the former and the city or town whose ordinances are violated, pays for the latter. The fees received by the jailors are upon a sliding scale

and average about twenty cents per day per prisoner. It costs the state about $150 a year to maintain its misdemeanants in jail and the municipalities pay almost as much more for keeping their prisoners in these schools of crime and germ laden pest-houses of disease. Under the new law the short-time felons may be sentenced to the roads instead of to the penitentiary. The Superintendent of the penitentiary is authorized to notify the judges throughout the state, whether to send the prisoners to the roads or to the penitentiary, according to the needs of the road force. This furnishes sufficient elasticity to prevent overloading or under-supplying the road force. The law is as follows:

> "Upon conviction of any felony, when the punishment is fixed * * * at confinement in the penitentiary for a term not to exceed five years it shall be lawful for the court in which he is tried, in its discretion, instead of sentencing the prisoner to confinement in the penitentiary, and in lieu thereof, to sentence him to hard labor on the public roads for a period of time equal to the term of confinement in the penitentiary so fixed. And that he be delivered into custody of the Superintendent of the Penitentiary to be kept by him as a member of the State Convict Road Force in accordance with law."
>
> "All prisoners convicted of crime and sentenced either to hard labor on the public roads or to imprisonment in jail, and all persons imprisoned in jail for non-payment of a fine or costs, shall, when delivered upon the order of the Superintendent of the Penitentiary, constitute the State Convict Road Force."

The misdemeanants are taken from the jails, which serve as a sort of receiving ship or recruiting station, upon the order of the Superintendent of the penitentiary, as the needs of the road force require, having regard always to the distance the prisoner is to be transported and the unexpired length of his time. Under our present system, when a prisoner is taken from the jails and put in the road force, the fees which would otherwise be paid by the state or municipality to the jailor, are paid to the Superintendent of the Penitentiary and become a part of the State Convict Road Force fund.

It will be observed that all the prisoners, felons and misdemeanants alike are, as it were, put into one common fund which is drawn from, as the needs of any section of the state

demand. Most of the criminals come from the big towns and cities, or are congested in their jails, but as the state at large pays for the maintenance of the prisoners who are imprisoned for violation of state laws, it is but right that all the people should have the benefit of the labor of all of those criminals. This is an important feature of this system. For if the prisoners are to be kept in the county in which the crime was committed, a system which prevails in North Carolina, then the counties with long roads and sparse population would have few criminals and the cities with no roads and many people, would have more criminals than they could employ.

Here is how the system is put in practical operation. The local authorities having determined to build a good road, apply to the State Highway Commission for a competent civil engineer to view the proposed road. Upon receipt of such application the State Highway Commissioner sends to such local road authorities a blank form furnished by him for the purpose, eliciting from said road authorities such information touching the proposed road improvement as he desires, which blank form the local road authorities fill out to the best of their ability and return to the Commissioner. If the Commissioner be satisfied that the proposed improvement will be permanent and upon a main traveled road, and that the plans proposed by the local authorities for such improvement are in his judgment adequate and practicable, he, or one of his assistants, views the road or part thereof proposed to be improved and carefully prepares plans, specifications and estimates of the cost for its construction, with the materials agreed upon between the local road authorities and the Commissioner; a copy of said plans, specifications and estimates of cost is submitted to the local road authorities and a copy is filed in the office of the Commissioner. If the local road authorities then decide to improve or construct the road, or part thereof, in accordance with the plans and specifications recommended and submitted by the Commissioner, they then apply to the State Highway Commissioner for such state aid for the improvement or construction of said road as may be obtained under the provisions of the act.

It will be observed that the county is under no obligation to build a road until after its authorities have an estimate of

its probable cost. And if the first estimate is too high, the local authorities and the Commissioner can, like two bargaining men, alter and amend the plans until they are acceptable to both parties. Then a contract is drawn up by which the state agrees to furnish the labor and the county the tools and the materials for the building of the road and a resident engineer, who carries out the plans of the State Highway Commissioner. When this has been done, the Commissioner makes requisition on the Superintendent of the Penitentiary for the number of convicts he thinks the work requires. The Superintendent of the Penitentiary then assembles the number of convicts required, taking them first from the jails nearest to the road and mingling with these enough long-time felon convicts, who have had experience in road-building, to make a good working force. A movable camp is located and the proper number of guards, under the direction of a sergeant who reports directly to the Superintendent of the Penitentiary, takes charge of the force.

How the system has worked can perhaps be best set before you, by answering a few pertinent questions, which suggest themselves. How does the efficiency of convict labor compare with that of free labor? Here in Virginia, practically all of our common labor is performed by negroes. Five-sixths of our criminals are negroes and about three-fourths of the convict road force are negroes. About the only difference between the free negro laborer of the ordinary variety and the convict negro laborer is that the latter got caught.

In his first annual report (P. 7) our State Highway Commissioner has this to say upon this subject: "While a great deal has been said and written about the undesirability, even inhumanity of using convict labor on public works, all of which may have been justified, I am convinced that, if conditions had prevailed elsewhere as they do in Virginia, under the management of our superintendent of the penitentiary, who at all times, has supervision of the maintenance of the men in the convict camps, such criticisms could never have been made, or if made, gone unrefuted. The men in the road camps seem satisfied, and many have expressed to me a preference for this work to remaining in jail. It has been claimed by the opponents of this system of working convicts, that the efficiency of their la-

bor is much below that of hired labor. Naturally the average day's work of the convict is below that of the hired laborer. Aside from the moral effect of working under compulsion instead of for pay, the physical condition due to dissipation and often insufficient nourishment of the criminal class, is as a rule below that of the working class. Then, too, short-term men barely have time to become hardened and trained to the work before they have to be released and new men broken in to fill their places. Still another objection to convict labor arises from the fact that the law requires that they shall be locked up by dark. This necessitates their stopping work in time to be carried back to the camp (often one or two miles off) and fed while yet light, and at certain seasons of the year, this results in a loss of a considerable portion of the usual working hours. These drawbacks are offset to a considerable extent by the advantage of regular labor under perfect control. There are no losses of time from strikes or the drinking and loafing that frequently follows pay days. Indeed, I have been told, by engineers and contractors who have had considerable experience with both classes of labor, that they preferred to work the convict road force rather than average free labor, even at the same wages."

COSTS

The total cost of building a mile of first-class macadamized road in the several states reporting is as follows:

Delaware, over $7,812	Maine, over 5,828
Maryland, over 6,914	Massachusetts, over 6,842
Michigan, over 4,500	New Hampshire, ... 4,227
New Jersey, over..... 5,544	New York,. $8,000 to $10,000
Connecticut, over 7,000	

Virginia, with the exception of the Norfolk County road which was built under forced pressure for the Jamestown exposition, $2,600.

To feed, guard, clothe and transport a prisoner in the State Convict Road Force, has cost only a fraction over forty cents per day, and, counting out the lost time and figuring on ten hours to the day actually worked, it has cost only 69 1-5 cents per day. The county gets credit when the road is let to con-

tract, for one dollar per man per day of ten hours. And it is to be remembered that twenty cents of this sum would otherwise be paid to the state for keeping the jail-birds in idleness in the county and city jails.

Roughly speaking, labor constitutes about half the cost of road building. If we could put all the jail prisoners directly on the roads, the saving to the state in this item alone every year, would pay for the labor used in building one hundred and fifty miles of road—a road which would reach almost from Washington on the north to the North Carolina line on the south.

ESCAPES

The Superintendent of the Penitentiary told me privately last February that at that time there was not a single man from the road force at large. The few who had escaped had been captured and returned. There will be, of course, some escapes. While the men are only separated from freedom in the day by the vigilant eye of the guard with his gun and at night by a light chain on his leg, we must expect some escapes. Our experience has been that fewer escape than might have been expected.

HEALTH

I quote from the last report of the Superintendent of the Penitentiary: "The sanitary condition of the camps has been excellent, and the percentage of sickness among the prisoners very small, only two deaths occurring since the establishment of the first camp in July, 1906." Both deaths were from pneumonia, one complicated with a chronic disease. Compare this with the statement that out of twenty-five deaths in the Penitentiary and State Farm last year, nineteen were from tuberculosis. The confined life in prison, so fatal to the negro race, killed, through tuberculosis, three times as many prisoners as all other causes combined. The state has no moral right to commit human beings to a jail for the purpose of depriving them temporarily of their liberty and at the end of their term, turn them out on society with an incurable and fatal disease, having taught them only idleness, uncleanliness and crime, rendering them unable and unwilling to engage in the pursuit of honest labor.

TREATMENT

The men are well treated, they are given all they can eat of coarse, but wholesome food. They fatten on the rations and regular work given them. All of them say they had rather be on the road force than either in jail, or the penitentiary. They are required to be cleanly, changing their clothes at frequent intervals, the dirty clothes being washed in camp by "trusty" prisoners, who place each man's clean clothes in a separate compartment kept for that purpose in the mess tent.

The counties frequently let the road work out to contractors who allow, on the price of the contract, one dollar per man per day of ten hours. In the rules and regulations under which convicts will be furnished contractors for work on public roads, are found, among others, these provisions. "They (the convicts) must be permitted to see the physician in charge when they are sick, and that official must decide whether they are able to work or not. The officer in charge of the camp must see that proper medical attention and medicines are furnished by the authorities and report any failure along this line to the superintendent of the Penitentiary." "No officer, foreman or guard shall strike, beat or corporally punish any prisoner except in self-defense, or to compel obedience, or in the defense of others, nor shall they use abusive language to them. When it is necessary to discipline a prisoner, the charge must be inquired into by the officer designated by the superintendent and a fair trial be given the prisoner before the punishment is administered. The prisoners must be treated humanely at all times."

It may be objected that no distinction is made between felons and misdemeanants in the convict road force. There is no distinction in the work in kind, only in degree. Just as there is little difference in their offenses against society in kind but only in degree. The felons wear prison stripes, the misdemeanants the blue jeans of the laborer.

In conclusion let me ask: Is it not right to compel the offender to make some sort of restitution, by his own labor, to society which he has outraged? And what form of labor could come less into competition with honest free labor, and at the same time secure the greatest benefit to the greatest number of

people who form this same outraged society, than the building of good roads? And should not the practical fact that we can build good roads by convict labor, for half or a third of the cost under other systems, overcome much of the captious criticism of the sentimental?

The chief objectors we have encountered are not the people who pay the taxes to maintain jails and prisoners, but the jailors and the prison labor contractors who have, hyena like, been fattening on the fallen.

DISCUSSION

Dr. J. H. Stolper, Oklahoma—The impression has been made upon me, that the great State of Virginia as well as the many distinguished gentlemen who preceded me, are dealing with the criminal upon the principle that having become a criminal he has no personality, has no right to a future consideration. Road building may be very well from the interest of the state, it benefits the people, but what does it do for the criminal. Sending criminals to prisons was at first a matter of revengeful punishment, later as causes and effect began to be understood, it was done as a corrective measure. Where is the correction to the criminal in building roads? Environment, sometimes heredity, and often necessity are responsible for the making of many criminals. To prevent the above forces from exercising their evil influence upon the ex-criminal when he is released from prison, the state should provide the ex-convict with the possibility of earning an honest, self-support; will any intelligent person claim that road building provides such future self-support? It is admitted that the less illiterate a prisoner is, the more easily the prison administration finds it possible to deal with him, will road building for the state reduce the illiteracy? Again building roads for the state leaves the ex-convict in the same position when he leaves the prison, as when he entered it, and if he was supporting himself by crime before, not knowing any honest occupation he must turn to crime again. The proper method of dealing with the criminal has been pointed out by our worthy chairman in the committee report. If we concede that crime is a social disease, let us treat the criminal as we treat the sick. The proper way to deal with the prisoner, is to use him part of the time to build roads, if you need the roads, but have part of the time spent learning a trade, a trade by which he could support himself in an honest manner and become a good citizen, and that is of just as much importance to the state as to reduce the illiteracy so the prisoner may learn to read, to find in the works of others an inspiration to honesty and fair dealing with his fellow men.

Statistics

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY JOHN KOREN, EXPERT SPECIAL AGENT OF U. S. CENSUS BUREAU, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN

More than a generation ago, Gen. Francis A. Walker, then perhaps our foremost statistician, said: "The country is hungry for information; everything of a statistical nature or even of a statistical appearance is taken up with an eagerness that is almost pathetic; the community has not learned to be half sceptical and critical enough in respect to such statements." On another occasion he remarked, "The American people are intensely and passionately devoted to statistics." These utterances might have been of yesterday, so accurately do they describe the prevailing conditions. The pathetic hunger for statistical information continues; and the uncritical and unsceptical attitude of the general public toward things statistical is almost as pronounced as thirty years ago. This is said with a full realization of our great advance in the science of statistics.

As an instance of the unappeased thirst for information one may cite the great activity in what we are pleased to call "social research." In common parlance, this term covers almost every kind of exposition of social and social-economic conditions. Social problems or, more accurately, social ills, form, however, the chief objects of exploitation; and the statistical method is the instrument of work employed to a greater or less extent by them all. There is an ever-growing multitude of publicists (it were unfair to call all of them statisticians) who have much or little to say about social problems for purposes of reform or propaganda or for no special purpose whatsoever; and much of their general output claims recognition as the results of social research.

It cannot be denied that a large part of the work parading under this name does not rest upon a proper fact basis, that it is inconclusive, that the statements are merely descriptive, or what is worse, tinged by a desire to prove a thesis—in short, that it is simply propagandist literature which may not be without its uses, but is not to be accepted as unbiased efforts to get at the truth. In other words, it does not produce acceptable statistics even where the statistical method is used. To give concrete examples in support of this generalization might seem uncharitable. It is fairly obvious, however, that social research is dangerously near becoming a fad in several quarters. If this were not so it would be exceedingly difficult to account for the numerous research departments which are attached to associations, clubs and other more or less clearly defined agencies, not to mention the purely private ventures. Far be it from us to undervalue social research as such. When intelligently and honestly undertaken, it deserves unlimited support and is worth all the effort and money that can be put into it. But the time has come to cry halt and to protest against the prevalent notion that social research is a plaything in which any one may indulge as fancy directs, and that possession of a college diploma or a speaking acquaintance with social problems are sufficient to qualify one for social research.

In the true sense of the term, social research is an occupation requiring just as much scientific training and aptitude as research in any other line; perhaps even greater, because the field is so wide, the problems so numerous, and the ever-present human equation so exceedingly difficult to deal with. In other domains research is not so lightly undertaken; thorough training, aptitude and some experience are regarded as prerequisite to serious work. As in all other scientific work, so in social research the primary motive should be to get at the facts and to present them as they are regardless of final deductions and applications. It is just because this motive is so frequently lacking in contemporaneous social research, because there is such a manifest tendency to prove theories and champion causes that much that is put forth under that name is not quite sincere and must in the end fail of acceptance even if otherwise it might serve a useful purpose, which is not always the case.

The term social research as loosely applied frequently covers purely descriptive dealings with social phenomena. With this we cannot have serious quarrel, although it for the greater part represents only so much personal opinion. But generally the statistical method is the avowed instrument by means of which the products of research are reached; and to some of us it is a moving spectacle to witness the sublime faith with which this instrument is wielded. Its palpable limitations are ignored. It is cheerfully assumed that for every intelligent question there is a statistical answer. In short, it is taken for granted that any one who is skilful enough to frame a schedule of questions need but go forth into the world, look about and ask, in order to get replies that may be dissolved into statistical tables and ultimately be issued as pronunciamentoes regarding this or that vexing problem.

The incompetency of much of the social statistics resulting from present day research may be due to several causes. Frequently sheer lack of aptitude in statistical methods is one; another is the elaborate application of the statistical method to the perfectly obvious which only brings discredit; a third is that the impossible has been attempted; or that measurements have been applied to problems which by their very immensity or intricacy defy a superficial and piecemeal application of the statistical method; a fourth cause, and one that particularly interests us here is the lack of original records which should furnish the facts we are after. To put it differently, much social research work must fail because a proper record has not been kept of the things we want to know. This is not only true of a great deal of amateurish work, but explains many of the shortcomings of social statistics from the most trustworthy sources. The records from which answers should be had are not at hand, or they are so changed from year to year as to nullify comparisons, or the point of interest shifts periodically and cannot always be anticipated. Even the experienced searcher after facts is constantly brought to a sudden halt because he finds the sources of social statistics non-extant or dried up.

These reflections bring us to the gist of this committee report: If we want to do our share toward satisfying the legitimate demand for information concerning the problems peculiarly with-

in the view of this conference, if we wish to make intelligent social research duly profitable, if we wish to supply the fact-basis essential to practical endeavor in the concrete struggle with social questions, then let us take the necessary first step and bend our energy toward improving the primary sources of social statistics.

The sources of social statistics we have chiefly in mind are the records, reports and other information pertaining to activities represented within this conference. In almost every line of organized activity for social improvement some application is made of statistics, if not for purposes of research, at least for purposes of orderly information. Whether it be a small private society, a state or national organization, an institution or a non-institutional agency—all have recourse to the numerical representation of facts. It is the one indispensable means of measuring social activities, resources, the dimensions of problems, the efficiency of methods in dealing with them; in short, it is fundamental both as a basis for administration and legislation (in its broadest sense). With these rather trite observations there can hardly be any quarrel.

Can it be truthfully said that social agencies generally give evidence of employing records enabling them to gather for their own use the orderly array of facts which should serve as a basis for advance in practical work as well as for the enlightenment of others? For the greater part one must judge from the matter made public. True their annual and special reports may fairly bristle with facts and figures, but are they of the properly correlated and comparable kind or not rather a chaotic mass which even the minds of so-called experts fail to penetrate?

Of course, there are honorable exceptions. But the rule is as stated. The very existence of this Committee is evidence in point. If the primary sources of information about numerous social activities were not insufficient for the uses of the agencies engaged in them, they would suffice for purposes of assembling the facts for a general survey of many fields of work and we might abandon this preachment. Unfortunately this is not the case.

For two years we have sought in part to meet the situation by recommending the adoption of uniform schedules designed

to exhibit certain lines of activities in such a way as to render the main facts consistent and comparable. A two-fold purpose was kept in view: (1) to systematize such information as the agencies themselves need for their own use; (2) to systematize knowledge for general consumption. This year the Committee continues its endeavors in the same direction.

At best we can only recommend very rudimentary uniform schedules for fear that greater requirements set cannot be generally met. What is the fate of these schedules? It is hardly enough to secure their recommendation by unanimous vote. Has this conference or cannot it develop the necessary machinery for securing their wide adoption? That is one side of the question. Another is, are we by persevering along this line doing what is necessary toward improving the sources of social information? The chief motive should evidently be to help social agencies by intelligent use of the statistical representation of facts to increase the efficiency of their practical work. That accomplished, the demand for purposes of social research will also be met. It is easy to see, however, that the recommendation of uniform schedules alone will not suffice. Back of this lies another difficulty. The reason why we must content ourselves with elementary schedules and can only advance to more perfect ones by painfully slow degrees is that the raw material from which schedules should be made up is not at hand, at least in available form. In other words, the initial trouble lies in the fact that social agencies so largely employ crude and inefficient methods in recording the facts about their daily work.

If, therefore, we wish to bring about a signal improvement in the sources of social information, here is the point of attack. There should be some competent agency ready at all times to assist societies, institutions and agencies in devising model systems of records and reports. That there is a large and persistent call for such service experience has shown.

Again we ask, can the conference develop machinery necessary to this end? We leave the answer with you. This much is certain, however, unless the work designated be done, unless we set about to improve the sources of social statistics, no particularly fruitful results from the efforts of this Committee may be looked for. Evidently, our work must go on; but we must

strike deeper than now if we are to reach the root of things. Only by so doing can we render the perfect service to workers in charities and correction and further the real object of social research.

THE PROBLEM OF POVERTY AND PENSIONS IN OLD AGE

BY FREDERICK L. HOFFMAN, STATISTICIAN OF THE PRUDENTIAL INSURANCE COMPANY

The problem of the aged poor is world-wide. In every civilized nation a demand has arisen for a more intelligent policy of the state in dealing with a class which in any event is entitled to humane treatment and sympathetic consideration. It matters not whether they are poor because of shortcomings of their own, or because of social ills over which they had no control. They are helpless in the vast majority of individual instances and something must be done for them either through private charity or by the state. The problem which confronts society is whether what is to be done for the aged poor should rest upon a sound economic basis, rather than that the circumstances should be governed by irrational and precarious sentiment. Even the poor themselves agree that a guaranteed minimum of existence would be preferable to constantly changing conditions from a fair degree of comfort to absolute want. It is a curious commentary upon social conditions in America that the problem of the aged poor should demand consideration at a time which is usually considered the most prosperous period which this country has ever known.

The subject of state pensions in old age has a literature of its own and its various aspects preclude adequate treatment with brevity. It is attracting a considerable amount of attention in the United States, and a special commission has been appointed in Massachusetts to examine into its practicability for that state. In Wisconsin, Illinois, Florida, and other states attention is being given to the subject of state insurance upon a voluntary compulsory basis, chiefly for the protection of wage-earners against the financial consequences of ills resulting from industrial accidents and diseases, and the in-

evitable physical disabilities of old age. A vast amount of valuable information has been brought together in English Parliamentary Reports, which are more useful in a consideration of the subject of state pensions in this country than the experience of a paternal state like Germany, with conditions wholly unlike those prevailing in the United States. The English investigations and reports, which extend over a period of years, find their most radical embodiment in the scheme of Mr. Chas. Booth for free and universal old age pensions, beginning with the age of sixty-five, for an amount of $1.20 a week. This is upon the usual basis of 5s., which, it would seem, is the irreducible minimum to serve a useful purpose in ameliorating the conditions of the aged poor.

A great many other schemes have been proposed under which the beneficiaries would have to contribute wholly or in part a sum necessary, which by gradual accumulation of money at interest, would, at the age of sixty or sixty-five, be sufficient to purchase an immediate annuity of $1.25 per week or upwards. The objections which have been raised against these so-called contributory schemes may be summed up in the statement that it is held to be the duty of the nation as a whole to provide for adequate support in old age irrespective of the character, merits, or mode of life of the person to be provided for. From this point of view old age is likened to infancy as a state of helplessness during which, if from no other than humane consideration, adequate support must be extended by those in a position to do so. Quite different from these plans are the systems of old age pensions in Germany and New Zealand. The German system is compulsory and very complete, providing for practically every contingency, resulting from accident, sickness, or infirmity and old age, and technically it is the most perfect protection for wage-earners which has been devised. In practice the results have not been as satisfactory as expected, if for no other reason than that the beneficiaries under a minimum rate of support will never rest content, but agitate for a higher rate.

In New Zealand a pension of $1.68 a week is granted to all persons sixty-five years of age and over, not in possession of an income of more than $5.00 a week, and $1,600 clear property.

There are certain qualifications as to the exclusion of criminals, imbeciles, Asiatics, certain qualifications of character, etc., but, in a general way, the system is universal and the number not eligible is small. The pension system of New South Wales is much the same, except that the pensions are somewhat higher and that the amounts discriminate as to married persons, who receive $1.80 each person a week, and for unmarried persons, or widows, who receive $2.40 per week. The Colony of Victoria provides a state pension not exceeding $1.92 a week at the age of sixty-five, or any age upon evidence of permanent disability. The qualification for a pension is that the person must be without means of support, unable to maintain himself, and without near relatives able to provide for him, and that he must not have an annual income of more than $100, nor clear property exceeding $1,175.

Propositions for state pensions in the United States are, among others, that of the Rev. Edward Everett Hale, whose plan would provide free and universal pensions in the State of Massachusetts at the age of seventy, amounting to $1.92 a week for each man or woman, paid out of state funds and supplied by a poll tax. Since the estimated population of Massachusetts, aged seventy and over, is 97,906, the annual cost would be about $9,790,600. Mr. S. Woods, of England, has proposed a scheme of state pensions beginning at the age of sixty-five with a minimum of $1.20 a week and a maximum of $1.80, the funds to be derived from compulsory contributions of wage-earners paying 2 cents a week, and employers of labor to pay 2 cents a week for each workman, the state to pay 4 cents as a general contribution. To raise the funds necessary a graduated tax of all private or other incomes is proposed, of one per cent. on $1,500, two per cent. on $2,000, and increasing one per cent. for every additional $500, up to $6,000, and at the same rate for all incomes above. The Danish scheme provides pensions at the age of sixty after ten years' residence in Denmark, the beneficiary must not have been in prison and must not have had poor relief, one-half of the pension being paid by the state, and one-half by the counties or localities.

Perhaps the most simple proposition upon the basis of

joint contributions is that of Mr. Woods, but its difficulty lies in the enforcement, except in the case of permanently employed wage-earners. Of course, the 2 cents a week would have to be deducted from wages, and perhaps a stamp system, such as is used by the German government, would have to be adopted to reduce the expense of administration to a minimum. The great difficulty with all such plans is that they do not provide effectively for the class which is most in need of pensions in old age, and that is the common day laborer or casual workman, on the one hand, and the preponderating number of poor women, on the other. Any plan, however, which does not provide for contributions from the beneficiaries is likely to prove an enormous burden upon the taxpayers and a decided detriment to the general welfare. Any system of state pensions which does not require pro rata contributions from the beneficiaries in some form or other is likely to repeat the fearful lesson of the old English Poor Law, which brought the English nation to the verge of bankruptcy, both moral and financial, by 1834, and the evil results of which are still present and will continue to be present in establishing a permanent pauper class. Upon this point I cannot do better than quote the words of Mr. Arthur H. G. Ackland, an English authority on old age pensions, to the effect that "Until there is a reasonable consensus of opinion as to what is to be the principle underlying any national scheme, should such a scheme be desirable, it will be necessary to exercise the greatest caution before embarking on any kind of legislation. * * * * Pension schemes are more irrevocable than any ordinary kind of legislation. The additional and constantly accumulating liability which they involve is especially difficult to revoke or readjust to new conditions." It is this difficulty which most of the advocates of a universal state pension scheme ignore or make light of, but which threatens the solvency of the state which engages upon such an undertaking, on the one hand, and which imperils the moral fabric of the nation on the other.

As Prof. Sumner has well said, it is not sympathy with suffering that is needed, but sympathy with hard struggling—but, unhappily, most of the kindly thought of the world is wasted upon those who least deserve it. When we consider

that any scheme, or plan, of universal old age pensions, or even of pensions limited to the deserving poor, must of necessity be paid out of the general revenue raised by taxation, the financial question itself assumes very serious proportions, even in a country as wealthy as ours. If, because of ill-arranged social conditions, burdens fall upon those least able to bear them, the remedy would seem to lie in a different direction from that of old age pensions granted by the state. If, because of sickness resulting from industrial employment, large numbers of wage-earners are wholly, or in part, a public burden, the more effective remedy will be found in a modified employers' liability law, and not in the direction of a state pension scheme. Those who fondly believe that the latter would remedy the ills which now surround the poor in their old age, would find in their disappointment that they had neither eliminated the poorhouse, on the one hand, nor the pauper's grave, on the other. Before any action is taken there is the most imperative need in a free democracy that the subject shall be carefully considered in all its phases, impartially, with as painstaking a consideration of those who work and save and live useful lives, as of those who live an existence opposed to the best interests of society.

At the outset of any serious consideration of the problem of the adequate provision for the aged poor it is necessary to define the class to be affected and the extent to which relief is to be granted. In most of the propositions the pension period is made to begin with age sixty-five, but some place the age as low as sixty, while others have suggested the age of seventy. Necessarily, the financial difficulties of the problem vary in exact proportion to the age at entry, since to every one hundred living at age sixty, by the Massachusetts life table, only eighty-one would be living at age sixty-five, and only sixty-four at age seventy. Upon the basis of a careful estimate for January 1st, 1908, the population of the United States aged sixty and over is 5,512,704, aged sixty-five and over 3,531,576, and aged seventy and over 1,981,128. The corresponding numbers for the State of New Jersey are, at age sixty and over, 155,794; at age sixty-five and over, 96,433, and at age of seventy and over, 55,267. Adopting the estimate of a British Depart-

mental Committee, that at ages sixty-five and over 32.4 per cent. would be entitled to pensions, the numbers pensionable in the United States at that age would be 1,144,230, and in the State of New Jersey 25,796. Assuming as a minimum a pension of $5.00 a week, as the lowest amount at which support could be obtained, in conformity to the American standard of living, the annual cost to provide a pension of this amount for the probable number of aged poor at ages sixty-five and over throughout the country would be $297,499,800, and for the State of New Jersey $6,706,960. If the age, however, were reduced to sixty, the corresponding amounts would be $464,390,160 per annum for the United States, and $13,124,020 for the State of New Jersey. If the pension age were placed at age seventy, the amounts would be $166,890,100 per annum for the United States, and $4,655,820 for the State of New Jersey. Of course, in practice it might very easily be found that the proportion of pensionable persons would be much larger. The English estimate is based upon an original investigation in certain localities and a similar investigation would have to be made in this country before an exact basis of fact would be available. The conditions in the two countries might differ materially.

Advocates of a state pension system are emphatic in their belief that there would be a material reduction in the cost of charitable relief, both as regards the indoor poor and those receiving outdoor poor relief. In a special report on old age pensions published by the State Bureau of Labor Statistics, the opinion is advanced that "if it were possible to inaugurate a system of old age pensions, the poorhouses, almshouses, and those institutions caring for the poor would be needed no longer. Only those special institutions would be required which care for the insane, dipsomaniacs, and those whose physical condition is such that it would not be advisable for them to live at home or in private families." This view is not warranted by any facts to be derived from the experience of the countries where old age pension systems are in operation. It is a pure assumption, which is likely to work serious mischief among those who may consider the subject only from a sentimental point of view. This matter has been very carefully considered in nearly all

of the various investigations of the advisability of a state pension scheme, especially in England, and there would appear to be a general agreement to the effect that "the cost of indoor relief would be practically unaffected by the operation of a pension scheme." Indoor relief, or almshouse support, however, affects a very large proportion of pensionable persons aged sixty-five years and over, and I cannot do better than quote the conclusion of one of the Committees (Mr. Chamberlain's) to the effect that "the evidence is clear that the majority of the inmates of the (alms) house are in that position because of sickness or infirmity, which obliges them to accept the shelter of such an institution." A special investigation was made as to the physical condition of the inmates of institutions for the aged poor, sixty years of age and over, and it was ascertained that 61 per cent. were, in the opinion of the medical officers, unable, owing to physical or mental infirmity, to satisfactorily take care of themselves. It was further ascertained that only 14 per cent. of the total number of inmates sixty-five years of age and over could live on a pension outside the workhouse, with relatives having suitable accommodations for them, and only 10 per cent. were willing to do so. The "Aged Pensions Committee" of 1903 reported thereupon that "the reduction of Poor Law expenditure (as the result of a state system of pensions) will be considerably less than has often been represented, inasmuch as the proportion of the aged poor who are now, or may in future be, in the workhouses, who could, with advantage to themselves, live outside with the aid of the pension, will probably be found to be very small."

In the State of New Jersey at the present time there are, approximately, one thousand persons in almshouses, aged sixty-five and over. It is very doubtful if more than a small fraction of this number would be affected by any state pension scheme, or that, in return for a minimum pension of $5.00 a week, they would be placed in a position to better support themselves individually than they are now taken care of in the aggregate.

There, no doubt, would be a saving in outdoor relief, but most of this would merely be a shifting of the tax burden, which would continue under another name. The facts are not

known as to the proportion of persons in this state, or throughout the United States, who are now in receipt of outdoor relief in some form or another, and who have attained to the age of sixty-five and over. The vast majority of the aged poor, as distinct from the pauper class, are in part supported by relatives and friends, which, under any circumstances, must be the most satisfactory solution of a social problem of serious importance. Once a system of state pensions is adopted, this support will largely fail, and it is more than likely that the effect will be progressively downward, and affect the development of thrift and mutual self-help of other classes than those who would be the immediate beneficiaries under a state pension fund.

The state should only as a last resort attempt to do that which can possibly be done by private agencies, or by individual forethought and forebearance, and nothing should be done which is likely to discourage voluntary thrift in whatever direction that thrift may be exercised. It was brought out in the evidence before the Royal Commission on Old Age Pensions of the Commonwealth of Australia that "the amounts voted for charities by the governments of New South Wales and Victoria, where old age pension acts are in existence, have not been appreciably reduced in consequence of the passing of those acts. It is stated by witnesses that the acts have provided almost entirely for a different class of persons." The same report points out that "it has been shown that in numerous cases the granting of pensions with the consequent removal of inmates from asylums (or almshouses) has been exceedingly harmful, in that many of them have drifted into most undesirable quarters and suffered neglect and privation." The Commission, therefore, suggest that, where there are no relatives or friends, pensioners should be boarded out in public institutions, where they would receive the attention necessary in the helplessness of advanced age. In such cases, they recommend that the pensions should be paid to the institutions in behalf of the pensioners. This, in other words, is a straightforward admission that the system of state pensions would not do away with the necessity for indoor support in old age, which, under such circumstances, would merely be considered a right instead of a charity, while furthermore, a state pension system would

probably not very materially diminish outdoor relief, in that the pensions would probably benefit a class which is not now within the scope of poor law administration or private charitable aid.

It is this class, however, which is of the utmost importance from a social and an economic point of view. It is this class which at present, in some way or another, by self-help, manages to avoid the more or less humiliating reliance upon public support. It is this class which has, by voluntary effort, established throughout this country, and elsewhere, voluntary thrift agencies in the form of savings banks, fraternal relief societies, insurance, or other means of providing self-support in old age. To a large extent this class relies upon the help of those who have been helped by them in past years, or, in other words, the old expect to be helped by the young, just as the young have been helped by the old. This is not charity, but mutual aid of the right kind, based upon mutual obligations for service rendered, for which a state system of pensions can never be a substitute. It is this class which forms the backbone of the nation, earning weekly wages not much more than sufficient for the support of the family for the time being, but from which small deductions are made by self-sacrifice and self-denial, which by gradual accumulation and invested at compound interest, provide a sum more or less sufficient for a modest support in old age. The amount which is thus saved is of almost incredible proportions, but much greater is the amount of self-sacrifice and self-denial necessary to produce it. There is nothing more creditable to the wage-earners as a class than the annual amounts placed in savings banks, or with insurance institutions of various kinds. In addition vast sums are saved and invested, but often with less security and to less advantage than when placed with savings or insurance institutions, specifically designed to meet the needs of those who live on weekly wages.

Already much is being done by wage-earners to provide for support in old age, as made evident by the aggregation of savings banks deposits and insurance funds. Last year the amount on deposit in savings banks was $3,482,137,198, and the amount of increase in deposits was $220,901,079. Even grant-

ing that only half of this sum represents wage-earners' savings, the result is very decidedly to the credit of those who make a brave effort to so live that they shall not be a burden upon others. Another evidence is to be found in the ever-increasing amount of industrial and fraternal insurance, both of which aid materially in the struggle for economic independence and by degrees educate the masses in the principle of systematic savings and insurance on other plans. Much remains to be done towards the better education of the masses in sound principles of savings, investments and insurance. Immense sums are now wasted in foolish expenditures which ought to be saved to provide for the future, while other and perhaps equally great sums are saved, but foolishly invested and lost. Radical legislation only can stamp out fraudulent enterprises, principally designed to attract small savings upon the plea of large returns. One of the most satisfactory steps in this direction was the suppression of the Louisiana Lottery, but many similar enterprises still flourish and the poor continue to be robbed of millions saved by self-denial for a worthy purpose. *Security* should be the first consideration, so that whatever is saved and set aside may serve its intended purpose. With this idea as a beginning the problem of self-support in old age assumes a very different and far less serious aspect. In other words, at the prevailing rate of wages it is possible for the masses of our wage-earners to provide the support necessary in their old age, at their own cost and in their own way, granted that they use judgment in their family expenditures, save with intelligence, and place the money where it has a reasonable security of not being lost or stolen.

Insurance could do much, if not most, to provide the necessary means of self-support in old age. The rational expenditure of the weekly income of American wage-earners should leave a sufficient margin to pay the premiums for an annuity beginning with age sixty or sixty-five, according to circumstances and conditions, sufficient to meet reasonable needs in old age. If but 5 per cent. of the average income is paid out for insurance premiums, a sufficient sum can be secured which will provide as much, if not more, than the state can ever pay even under the most liberal system of old age pensions. Let us

take, for illustration, an income of $900 per annum, 5 per cent. of which is $45; commencing with age thirty and continuing to age sixty-five, this sum paid to a responsible insurance company will purchase an annuity of $454.09 per annum for a man, and of $375.63 per annum for a woman. Or, to put the matter in another way, let a man begin at the age of thirty to pay annually $42.65 and he will be entitled to receive an annuity of $250 per annum for the remainder of his life, beginning at age sixty; or, if he prefers, it will cost him only $24.78 per annum to secure such an annuity beginning with age sixty-five. In the case of women the cost is somewhat greater on account of the superior expectation of life of women in old age. Let us suppose that the man is not able to commence at age thirty, but that he begins to make periodical payments at age forty, and continues for twenty-five years, then the cost of an annuity of $250 per annum will be $45.50 a year, or 6.5 per cent. of an income of $700, or 5.5 per cent. of an income of $900, or 3.79 per cent. of an income of $1,200 per annum. These calculations are upon the usual plan of selling deferred annuities, and, of course, if death should occur during the intervening period the payments made would be forfeited, or accrue to the benefit of surviving contributors to the fund. Of course, the earlier in life the periodical payments begin, the smaller the amount required to be paid. Many other plans have been devised by which joint annuities can be purchased. A continuous instalment policy, for illustration, provides for the surviving wife in the event of the husband's death for the remainder of her life, or for the needs of children for a period of twenty years. The fact, however, must be kept in mind that, insurance being conditional upon the duration of life, the cost is in proportion to the age at which the payments commence, and the best plan, in the long run, is to commence to make these periodical payments at as early an age as possible.

Further than this I cannot go into the details of the subject. In brief, I hold that the agitation for state pensions in the United States is ill-advised, in that the problem of poverty in old age, as generally met with, is primarily the result of ill-spent years, or ill-spent earnings, or ill-spent savings.

What is needed most is rational education in household economics. Poverty is a relative term and its actual extent is much less than generally assumed. Of real pauperism there is, as yet, very little in this country and the economic condition precludes the growth of a permanent pauper class. The agitation for old age pensions has not come from those who would be the beneficiaries under the proposed measures or plans, but rather from those who feel strongly, but reason badly, upon the facts in the case. The vast majority of wage-earners are fully able to provide for their own old age out of savings deducted from present earnings, amply sufficient to meet a reasonable standard of living. It requires no very extended knowledge of the life of the poor to know that among them exists, in spite of poverty, the highest possible ideals of a true family life. As it has been said, "parents who have done well by their children seldom come to grief in their old age, except by very special misfortune, or unless something intervenes to weaken the bond." The chief safeguard against poverty and dependence in old age is a thoroughly sound and well conducted family life, such as prevails in the preponderating majority of American homes. In this truly lies the strength of the people, and not in the money in banks, nor for that matter, in policies of insurance, or in contracts of annuities. All these are means to an end, but at the root of the problem of poverty and old age lies the proper conception of individual responsibility, and this, no doubt, would be weakened and partly destroyed by reliance upon state support in old age. It is one of the most unfortunate tendencies of modern times to misuse the English language and to adopt forms of expression to cloak the insidious character of certain acts and certain traits. In a problem of this kind, it is of the utmost importance that there should be no misunderstanding, and it is an imperative duty to use words in their right meaning. Any system of state pensions is charity in another form, in that the funds have been derived from others than those who will benefit by its distribution. The specious argument is sometimes made that the poor have spent their lives in the service of the nation, and that in return they are entitled, by right, to adequate support. In fact, the recommendations of the Royal Commission of Australia on Old

Age Pensions distinctly concede this point by holding that it should be laid down in the proposed legislation that "old age pensions are to be granted, as a right, and not as an act of charity." Wage-earners do not spend their lives for the benefit of the state, but they seek their own ends in their own way and sell their services at a given price. They may be entitled to remedial legislation in the way of more stringent employers' liability acts for industrial diseases and accidents which may incapacitate them for work, or materially shorten their lives, but besides this there is no duty under which the state, and under which the people as a whole, are toward the individual, and it is absurd to speak of a right to a pension out of funds which have been derived from the forced contributions of those who are most likely not to be the beneficiaries. It is well to keep in mind the fundamental fact, as pointed out years ago by Prof. Sumner, that the man who has not done his duty can never be the equal of the man who has, and the man who has wilfully, or in ignorance, squandered his earnings, should not be treated with superior consideration to the one who has lived his life rightly, saved his money, and provided for the needs of his own old age. It would be far better if the duty in such cases were more strongly emphasized, and if the consequences of wrong living were permitted to fall upon those who have been a hindrance, rather than a help, to the social progress of the times.

The interest in the subject of pensions for the aged poor, however, is world-wide, and it is certainly desirable that the facts in the case should be thoroughly understood. As a primary basis for any practical discussion the facts of poverty in old age should be ascertained by means of a thorough investigation, somewhat along the lines of Rowntree's Study of Poverty, and Mrs. Louise B. More's Investigation Into Wage-Earners Expenditures in New York City. A valuable work on the subject is Helen Bosanquet's Strength of the People, which contains a chapter on the aged poor, and Mackay's Essays on the English Poor, the State and Charity, Savings and Insurance, and Methods of Social Reform. The last-named work contains a valuable chapter on old age pensions and the state. Among other works of value are Spender's Treatise on

the State and Pensions in Old Age; a Collection of Essays on Old Age Pensions, published by Macmillan in 1903; a well-known work of Geoffrey Drage on the Problem of the Aged Poor; Metcalf's work on Universal Old Age Pensions, with an introduction by Chas. Booth, and Booth's own work on Pauperism and the Endowment of Old Age, published in 1892. A summary of the more important British parliamentary reports on old age pensions will be found in a statement prepared by the Secretary of the Local Government Board, published under date of July, 1907, supplementing a series of documents which commence with the investigations of the Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, which sat during the years 1893-1895, continued with the Committee on Old Age Pensions known as Lord Rothschild's Committee, and the Select Committee of the House of Commons known as Mr. Chaplain's Committee of 1899. A further report was prepared by the Departmental Committee on Aged Deserving Poor in 1900, and another report by a Select Committee on the Aged Pensioners' Bill in 1903. A convenient summary of the various pension systems will be found in the Report on Old Age Pensions, published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Massachusetts in 1905. The most recent work on the subject is Old Age Pensions in Theory and Practice, by Wm. Sutherland.

These few bibliographic references will indicate the wide scope of the subject and the necessity for a thorough consideration of the facts in the case, previous to any recommendation for legislative action in this direction.

DISCUSSION

MAYOR HEBBARD, of Boston—I am disappointed in Mr. Hoffman's paper I have had eight years' experience as postmaster, and I can declare unqualifiedly for old age pensions; the government would save money under proper restrictions. I am not so sure about the city. We have seven hundred men over sixty years in our service. It is a serious proposition, the things that go to make up the tax rate of a large city. When the tax rate is large you don't get the money for your institutional work. How are you going to inculcate thrift into the laborer getting two dollars and twenty-five cents a day? How can he save money to retire when he becomes sixty, at the present high cost of living? It seems to me you must pension old men; either you must carry them on your rolls, or you must discharge them. As mayor I won't discharge them, so I must carry them at the expense of the taxpayer. I hope when statistics are obtained there may be means by which this question can be solved. I have put this question

up to the labor leaders and up to date there has been no conclusion, but I believe we can work the problem out for the good of the old men and for the good of the cities and the state.

Mr. John Martin, of New York—I want to take issue with one or two points raised in Mr. Hoffman's paper. In his conclusion he asserts, I think without limitation, that in America the cause of poverty in old age is either thriftlessness and drunkenness, or some delinquency. Since he referred to Mr. Charles Booth's investigation in England, I am surprised he should commit himself to such a statement. If there was one thing which Mr. Booth proved more than any other from his very minute investigation it was, at any rate in that country, the main cause of poverty was old age itself, and that thriftlessness and drunkenness accounted for a very small percentage. Somewhere about seventy per cent. of the poverty in old age was the result of the infirmities of old age, not following at all upon a life of idleness or thriftlessness or vice. We have just learned in another section, that one of the most remarkable experiences this last winter, of unemployment, has been the capacity of the workmen on account of their savings in prosperous times, to do without relief during these hard times. Therefore we have had the experience of virtuous, industrious, saving people whose savings have been exhausted during the last winter. Now suppose they are brought to old age and its infirmities, and the next year to a condition of destitution, would it be fair to assert that they were brought to destitution on account of delinquencies of their own? Mr. Hoffman swelled somewhat abnormally his estimate of the probable cost of old age pensions by putting the standard at five dollars a week. Why should he take five dollars a week as the minimum pension when in the same paper he shows that in Victoria where wages are high and conditions about the same, they have a standard of ten shillings a week, which is about half of five dollars. He assumed, for the sake of his estimate, that the percentage worked out by the British Parliament Committee was thirty-two. He also assumed that the standard of living prevalent in this country would have no effect upon the percentage of people who would be likely to come upon the pension scheme. If we have that high standard of living, we may assume that the call upon the pensions would be less in this country than in Great Britain. If we do not assume that the standard is higher, why need we double our figures to swell the estimate of the cost of the pension?

Mr. Roswell Page, of Richmond, Va.—We have found it to be the case that an appropriation made by the Board to old men and old women at their homes, and the supplies furnished them through the merchants in localities where the amount supplied was insignificant, wasn't even five dollars a month, yet it has enabled those people to maintain themselves out of the almshouse.

Dr. J. H. Stolper, of Oklahoma—I am heartily in favor of old age pensions, and do not agree with Mr. Hoffman's paper showing by the great row of figures that it would be a prohibitive cost to the people of this country. The discussion of the previous paper has shown that all statistical data are not gospel truth. Mr. Hoffman, to prove his argument, gives impressive figures of what a general old age pension would cost the country, but he does not take the trouble to say how little it would amount per capita to the individual citizen. I fully agree with the Mayor of Boston when he just said that an old age pension for government employes would be economy. In Oklahoma our legislature has enacted a law authorizing cities to pension firemen. What right have we to ask police officers to risk their lives in the service of the people and then neglect them in old age? More than that, our workingmen often work their whole lives, and after paying their taxes to support the state have nothing left; is it not right that our workingmen and their families should be taken care of by the state in their old age? I hope

to live to see the poorhouse abolished, and every needy person to be given an old age pension not as a matter of charity, but as his due, as interest paid upon the investment of our workingmen's years of toil, of years spent in coal mines and factories, to be given as a mark of respect and honor by a grateful people to all who shall reach the non-productive age. Germany has recognized the need of some kind of a pension by establishing compulsory insurance. New Zealand found an old age pension proper and just, and I trust that the day is not far away when we will have an old age pension in the United States.

THE USE AND MISUSE OF STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK

BY MISS KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN, STATISTICIAN OF TENEMENT HOUSE DEPARTMENT, NEW YORK

The general theory underlying the use of the statistical method in social work is so plausible and attractive that few today would venture seriously to attack it. That every social condition is due to some cause or causes, that social remedies depend for their effectiveness on knowledge of causes, that this knowledge involves more or less investigation and examination, are almost self-evident propositions, stated in this general way, and lead naturally to the employment of the statistical method, as a form of research especially applicable where large numbers are to be dealt with, as in the case of social groups.

And so it happens that every phase of the growing interest in social conditions and social betterment is manifesting itself in the endeavor to produce its own appropriate form of social statistics.

Every matter on which legislation affecting social conditions is desired (and these are growing in number and extent day by day) is first referred for investigation, as a matter of course, to some committee or commission, which after laboring from six months to two years, produces its own bulky quota of columns and tables to be stacked away upon library shelves.

The official censuses, state and federal, originally intended to be mere enumerations of the population, include year by year a wider range of facts bearing on social conditions.

Our great organizations of various kinds, public and private, dealing with the social group in its various subdivisions, as dependents, delinquents, defectives, and so on, are keeping more and more complete and careful records, to show not

merely administrative efficiency, but also such facts regarding the class they have in charge as are thought likely to be of value in throwing light on the special problem involved in their work, or even upon those of a more general nature.

And, finally, every settlement worker, every college boy and girl, filled with enthusiasm for "research" and "statistics," is roaming up and down the land, with open note book and freshly sharpened pencil, to glean such precious spears of statistical fact as may have been passed over in the lumbering progress of the official machinery.

But in this enthusiastic advance upon the shining field of social research, how much have we looked behind to note the value of the crop we have been gathering?

In some of the older lines of statistical inquiry, the process of criticism has followed well after the process of growth. In the methods of census investigations, in records of institutions, improvements are constantly being made that are adding to the accuracy and usefulness of the statistical results.

But outside of these boundaries, among the host of newcomers into the statistical field, with a new idea for a statistical investigation for every day in the year, it seems as if the preoccupation with each successive new scheme prevents any critical examination of those already brought to completion. These enquirers remind one rather of fresh air children on an outing, so entranced by the new riches before them, that they grasp handful after handful, flowers and weeds together, only to drop them unregarded at the enticement of the next waving tuft of brightness.

There is, in particular, one branch of social inquiry in which there is special activity at the present time, and in which it seems there has been especially little taking account of what is really accomplished by it, and that is the investigation of the circumstances of the lives of the poor in their homes.

A favorite variety of this sort of investigation is that which concerns itself with the standards of living of families, as shown by the items of family income and expenditure, or the family budget. The difficulties of this kind of inquiry seem to be fairly well recognized in theory, but with apparently little effect in restricting the output in practice.

Every one to whom it would occur to make an attempt at statistical investigation at all is supposed to understand, as the very first principles of his work, that in order to secure anything which can properly be termed "statistics" the matter dealt with must be capable of expression in quantitative terms, must consist of units, that can be distinguished, as like and unlike, on some objective and verifiable basis, and that can be added, substracted and otherwise compared numerically. In the second place information as to these quantities and relations must be accessible. In the third place, a sufficient amount of this information must be gained to eliminate individual variations in the subject studied, or errors of observation on the part of the investigator.

In social inquiry generally as compared with most other lines of research in which the statistical method is used, there is special difficulty in meeting not merely one or two of these conditions, which might be counterbalanced by especially thorough compliance with the remaining one, but in meeting any and all of the three, owing to the number, obscurity and complexity of the elements involved.

And this is specially the case in investigations of standards of living. One who has been behind the scenes of one of these investigations, and knows how the information is obtained, must indeed feel a sense of wonderment that its serried array of columns, percentages and averages, can look so positive and convincing on the printed page.

In the first place, merely in arranging the concrete elements of the problem, the investigator has no end of difficulty in deciding upon the "units" that are to be counted. They must be distinct and they must always have the same meaning in the same investigation and they must be significant. It is necessary to reduce all sorts and kinds of commodities to some common basis of kind and quality and price. The concrete articles of food must be divided into general classes and distributed by periods of consumption. Bare amounts paid for rental tell little unless something can be known of the accommodation secured. Clothing must be distributed by kinds and by periods of service, a very difficult matter. The purchasing power of money ought to be taken into account, though it

usually is not. At last the schedule is planned, including many items the investigator has no direct or special use for at the time but that he thinks are "interesting" and likely to throw unexpected light on the social problem when gathered, and now he goes forth to collect his information.

Difficulty number two is promptly met with—that of the possibility of access to the information desired. He cannot, like the astronomer, make first hand observations of his material which can be verified by other first hand observers but is obliged to accept the statements of other people—his very objects of study—who may be, and usually are, of differing degrees of intelligence, of willingness to tell the truth, and of differing personal bias which will lead some to understate some things and others to overstate them, and vice versa. They in turn are not giving information entirely at first hand, but must depend more or less upon memory for matters that puzzle anybody to recall definitely. And, finally, the investigator has to translate their concrete contributions of items into his "units," and present them in such shape and semblance of order as to afford ground for some definite conclusion about something large or small.

Now the third difficulty is encountered; owing to the first two drawbacks, the scope of a budget investigation ought to be especially large to eliminate errors and give truly representative details. As a matter of fact, it is usually, on account of the time and labor necessary for its preparation, especially small. Data are usually gained for from one hundred to five hundred families, a range entirely inadequate as a basis for conclusions.

In a recent investigation where it was frankly acknowledged that the number of families investigated (two hundred) was too small to "furnish conclusive deductions for all workingmen's families," a comparison was made with broader investigations to prove the general correctness of the one in question. It might be urged, however, that where the small investigation is merely confirmed by the large one, it is unnecessary, and where it is not confirmed, it is too small to allow us to determine whether it is showing new and typical phenomena, or simply individual variations due to scarcity of examples.

Where sufficient scope is impossible (as it usually is) to

make the complete enumeration of facts that would give the whole truth for a class, for workingmen in a given country, for instance, at a given period, or for a given income class, or race, or neighborhood, the investigator has to fall back upon a principle of selection of examples that again works confusion.

In the investigation above referred to,* the two hundred families studied were found in one special neighborhood in New York City, but we are nowhere given definitely the principle of selection whereby, as the preface claims, "they were sorted out by a method as sound as could possibly be chosen," and consequently are unable to judge, except from the word of the investigator, whether the results of the investigation do or do not "give a comparatively true insight into the social, economic and industrial life of a large class of workingmen's families in any city neighborhood of similar character."

As the actual group of two hundred families chosen included families of eight nationalities, of eleven different sizes of family (ranging from two to twelve) with incomes ranging from $200 to $2,500, and of occupations of great variety, including unskilled, skilled and trading occupations, it is difficult to see how so small a group as a whole, can be taken as a type, in all its diversity, for the "working" population as a whole, and still less, how even under proper classification and subdivision, to show the effect of variation in one condition at a time—as variations of income within one race and size of family group, or variations of race within one income and size of family group, or of size of families within the same income and race group—any safe conclusion can be drawn from groups which in many cases are so small as to reduce to individual instances.

In the budget investigation just referred to, some attempt is made to classify the material presented so as to show income and expenditure according to the different elements involved, but we never succeed in getting only one variable at a time. If we have a classification showing variation in income groups within one size-of-family group, the race elements are mingled indiscriminately, so that we cannot tell whether it is the grade

* More's Wage Earners' Budgets, New York, 1907.

of income reached (which is shown) or the different preponderance of different race elements in different income groups (which is not shown where size of family and income groups are compared) that is related to the expenditure.

In like manner, in another set of tables, the reader thinks he has arrived at some wise conclusion as to the effect of race traits on expenditure by comparison of different races within the same income group, when he is suddenly brought to a standstill by observing that the different race groups show different sizes of family, which circumstance has its own separate effect on both the amount and proportion of expenditure.

The inquiry into standards of living recently undertaken by the New York Conference of Charities avoided some of these defects by confining the investigation as nearly as possible to families of approximately the same size (which might be considered the average size and type, father, mother and three children) and within a small range of income selected so as to bring the families within the lower levels of what was assumed to be "normal" subsistence.

But this investigation succeeded in securing for detailed study only two hundred and thirty schedules, covering three income classes and eight race groups.

Realizing the difficulties of the undertaking, the cautious investigator of budgets will disclaim any attempt at elaborate generalization, and will even, with studied modesty, claim to make none, offering his product as merely a bit of social history to be used by anyone else who may find it useful.

But it is interesting to see that these very investigators cannot after all refrain from generalization; and some of the attempts at interpretation are rather amusing. To take one more instance, from More's "Workingman's Budgets," the deduction is made in the final summary that "thrift seems to be most marked in nations in which the preponderance of the incomes is from the husband," on the basis of one table giving percentage of income derived from the husband, and another giving the average surplus in families where there was a surplus shown, both by nationalities.

It occurred to the present writer that the amount of income per person for the families of different races might have

something to do with it too. For instance, Norwegians stood at the head of the list as to amount of surplus and also per cent. of income from husbands. But the group as a whole consisted of four families of an average size of 3.5, and an average income of $1,171.75. Such families ought to show a surplus as compared with a group where the average income is $850, and the average size of family six. It might be objected that these very facts are closely related to the percentage of income from the husband, this growing naturally less as one goes down in the scale of prosperity.

To test this, and also to see if the generalization was justified, let us arrange the race groups in the order, respectively, of average income per person, of average surplus, where a surplus existed, and of percentage of income from the husband, also giving the number of families in each group to indicate the weight to be attributed to the facts they show, on the basis of the tables given in the report:

No. of Families	Order According to Average Income per Person	Order According to Average Surplus	Order According to Percentage of Income from Husband
4	Norway and Sweden	Norway and Sweden	Norway and Sweden
17	Germany	Germany	Switzerland
2	Switzerland	United States	Austria
15	England	Italy	France
105	United States	England	United States
4	France	Switzerland	England
35	Ireland	Ireland	Italy
15	Italy	France	Germany
1	Austria		Ireland
1	Cuba		Scotland
1	Scotland		Cuba

Comparison of the middle column with the right and left hand columns respectively will indicate which generalization was the better founded. It should be recalled that irregularity in the first set may be allowed, as indicating thrift as a purely race trait, aside from income, and the chief irregularities are ex-

plicable on that basis, notably for Italy, which has a race reputation for thrift and with the exception of Switzerland, where only two families are given—too few to indicate much.

In the right hand pair of columns, however, the hypothesis on which they are founded leaves no room for irregularity in order. As a matter of fact, the correspondence fails after the very first item. Omitting race groups when the number of families is less than four, helps matters somewhat, but even then the correspondence is not close, failing notably for the Germans and French.

But after all, what is the value of these studies without some generalization? What is looked for in these enquiries into standards of living is something beyond mere bits of social history. The chief inducement for taking up social research is to get some light on social causation, or at least, social tendency, and in particular one wants to relate the circumstances of life to the well-being of the family.

It is not enough to get bare items of income and expenditure; we want to translate them into terms of well-being. This task may be approached in various ways.

The mere fact of survival on a given income is a test of the minimum degree of well-being, or rather, one should say, of a certain degree, for it may be questioned whether those persons who are actually wiped out by death are of as much concern to society at large as those who drag their lives along through various stages of physical and moral disability.

That a family can barely survive on $500 a year can be learned in a simpler fashion than by a budget enquiry, and what we really want to know, is what grade of well-being that amount can secure, and under what conditions.

Certain approaches to this problem may be made statistically. For instance, we can reduce the amount of money spent for food into its main kinds, with the amount of each. Then we can, by analysis, determine the general nutritive value of this food per person, per day.

And this additional step was wisely taken in the investigation made by the New York Conference. But they were unable to determine the amount actually consumed, which would be the next stage of approach to the question of well-being.

This of course could be determined statistically, though it would not be easy to do so.

But for the next stage we should know what effectiveness is given to food by its preparation, which depends upon different degrees of ability in the housewife; then how the individual members are able to make use of it, which depends upon various idiosyncracies, involving the uncalculated forces of heredity as shown in race differences, inherited constitution, etc., and finally the degree of well-being reached by its use.

To these questions the statistical method to date does not give reliable answers, and perhaps never will, but the want of them vitiates the whole process to a great degree.

The skill of the housewife, which no way has been found as yet to measure statistically, is as important an element in the problem as any of those that can be so measured. And this is true not merely in the preparation of food, but in the direction of all expenditure. How are we to get track of this? Most investigators agree in the general importance of this element, but can only give information about it in general terms. It does little good to be told (as in one instance) that "what is done with the weekly income and the amount of comfort it yields depends almost entirely upon her character and ability," when the statistical tables from which inferences are to be drawn are made up entirely without classification of this most important variable, and when we are unable to deduce it from the items themselves. For it is obviously incorrect to assume that good management is proved in families in low income grades because they survive, or in higher grades, because they show a surplus of income over expenditures at the end of the year.

A more sensible test would be that of the grade of well-being of the family, which is also wanted for its own sake, as the final end of a budget investigation. But that too is difficult if not impossible to get statistically. It is not necessary to adduce elaborate proof of this point. Let any one who doubts the difficulty, set to work to draw up a schedule to show degrees of physical well-being and then consider how the information is to be secured and how accurate it is likely to be.

Or, to save labor, let him consult the report of the New

York Committee on Physical Welfare of School Children* which did attempt to connect circumstances of life with well-being by the statistical method, and see what results are obtained.

That committee, reversing the process of the budget investigator, took a grade of well-being as its starting point, and attempted to trace back to the circumstances of home life which might have caused it. Fourteen hundred school children in the kindergarten and first two grammar grades, of different nationalities, from schools in all parts of the city, who were found by the school physicians to have defects of vision, hearing, breathing, teeth and nourishment, were taken as the basis of the investigation, which consisted of inquiry into their home conditions "in order," the report states, "to ascertain whether their need arises from deficient income or from other causes."

At the very outset, the test of "well being" is seen to be a most uncertain one. While at first glance, the idea that two-thirds of the city's school children are physically "defective" is a startling one, after all, it depends upon the kind and degree of the defects how serious the condition is.

The kinds of defects included in the class investigated by the committee, are precisely those in which the degree of importance varies most widely, and is likely to be differently judged by different examiners.

The main items of defect shown in the fourteen hundred children studied were, malnutrition, enlarged glands, eye defects, nose defects, throat defects. The largest single item was for "bad teeth," which was present in 74.9 per cent. of the fourteen hundred children. This is obviously a defect as to the significance of which there may be great difference of opinion. Those that hold it is of especial importance in its bearing on malnutrition and other defects, will not get much support from the relation of defects shown in this report, as in the one hundred and forty-five cases of malnutrition, found among the fourteen hundred children (only 10.4 of all) only 73.1 were reported as having bad teeth; while the remainder not afflicted with malnutrition showed 75.1 with bad teeth. In fact, two

* Report on Physical Welfare of Children, pub. Am. Stat. Assn., June, 1907.

hundred and ninety-one of the children (21 per cent. of the 1,400) had no defects other than bad teeth. Suppose we decided that bad teeth, not accompanied by any other defect was nothing very alarming, and subtracted that number from the defective class. Doing this, and assuming that the 1,400 children with defects showed the ratio to children without defects given by the school authorities of two to one, it is found that the proportion of "defective" children in the school population would drop to 53 per cent., which is quite a different story.

In like manner the other items could be varied and the percentage changed. That there is a grave possibility of change in degree of defects due to differences in examination is more than hinted at in the report where a comparison is made between the percentage of defects shown in the first examination of 1,400 children in October, and in a re-examination of 990 of the same children in the following March and April. The remaining 410 had moved away, a selection of sufficiently random character not to affect the proportions, which were as follows:

	First Examination Per Cent of 1400 Children	Second Examination Per Cent of 990 Children
Malnutrition	10.4	12.9
Enlarged glands	45.5	70.2
Bad teeth	74.9	79.2
Eye defects	14.9	17.4
Nose defects	28.2	47.1
Throat defects	30.9	45.6

"Almost to a child," says the report, "conditions were found to be more serious in April than were recorded in the preceding October, November and December." But "no one knows," the report continues, "whether these changes are due to actual deterioration or to the probability that a school physician re-examining specially selected children, would be more thorough than when making original examinations." No allusion is here made to seasonal change, but this also would have to be taken into account.

Whatever the reason, it would seem that percentages

which could vary so widely as from 45 to 70 for enlarged glands; from 28 to 47 for nose, and from 30 to 45 for throat defects in six months, would be of little value either to show prevalence of defects or make a basis for showing their causes.

As a matter of fact, the results of this research were mostly negative, as practically admitted by the committee themselves, due, however, not merely to the indeterminate character of the class taken for investigation, but to serious defects in method, which could, it seems, quite well have been avoided.

In the investigation of homes, a large number of questions was asked, covering race, time of residence in New York State, in the city, income, occupation, members of the family working, kind and number of rooms occupied, rent paid, character of meals eaten by the child in question and his hours of sleep, disease and death record of the family, with record of circumstances accompanying the birth and infancy of the child, and many other matters.

The material thus obtained was embodied in thirty-eight tables of great length and detail, in comment upon nearly every one of which, one after another, the report itself states that the particular circumstance there tabulated did not seem to account for the defects.

This is not surprising when it is seen that not one of these tables gives comparisons with the same set of conditions for the school child without defects, to indicate whether the circumstances shown are in a differing proportion for the defective child, in which case only could any approach to significance be shown.

In only four of the thirty-eight tables are the different defects tabulated separately. Of the remaining thirty-four, twenty-two give classifications of circumstances of home life by race, nine by income and three by both race and income for the class of defectives as a whole.

If this were a study of race traits and habits, or of variations in the manner of life characteristic of various income groups, the tables would be to the purpose. But after uniting heterogeneous defects in one arbitrary class and failing to give any standard of comparison with the normal child, in what pos-

sible way can the diseases and mortality of fathers and mothers, number of children born, mortality and diseases of children, housing and conditions, income, etc., be shown to have relation to the defects given?

The nearest approach to a positive result is obtained from a couple of tables where malnutrition is tabulated separately and compared with the other defects, for several circumstances, income among them. Here we have some indications of circumstances that are presumably related to this one defect, but how much more light would have been thrown on even this one question had the basis of comparison been, not children with other defects, but the average child, or even more significant, the child without defects?

This lack could have been easily supplied for all the tables and the value of the report increased tenfold, by making a parallel investigation of home conditions for seven hundred families in which the school children showed no defects, that is, the remaining one-third which is said to be the proportion of those without defects among New York City school children.

Such an investigation after all is but a crude method of finding the causes of physical defects. Each defect may be the result of one of many causes, or of any variety of combinations of these causes, and each may in its turn interact with any of the others, in a way that requires the utmost patience and nicety of physiological research to disentangle, taking up one defect at a time, and one supposed cause at a time. Perhaps under the circumstances it would be advisable for the lay investigator to leave such questions for the medical profession to solve.

Are the results gained in such enquiries undertaken under such difficulties as these worth the time and money spent on them?

The most that budget investigations have determined, even if we assume them to be accurate, is that *some* people *can* live on a certain amount of money, at a given time and place, but they seldom afford a guide as to what other people *can* or *ought* to do. The budget enquiry of the New York Conference was undertaken with the eminently practical purpose of giving some light on the question of adequate relief, by showing how

much we ought to assume could be sufficient for a family to live on in a fairly normal way.

The conclusion drawn, however, is from an average based upon different race groups, each of which presumably differs from the other in respect to the fundamental necessaries of normal living. For this purpose indeed the statistical method is especially weak, for it is an unhappy characteristic of the average carefully to avoid hitting any individual case.

The discrepancies shown in estimates of the minimum living wage, indicate the difficulties of getting at the standard of living by means of statistics. And this, quite leaving out of the question the variation in purchasing power of money between one period and another and one locality and another, which of itself introduces an element of uncertainty so great that, as a guide to practice, a budget investigation is out of date about as soon as completed, and inapplicable besides to other communities than that for which it was taken.

Are there beside the lack of results, certain possibilities of actual harm in the present wholesale recourse to this form of enquiry? It always does harm to give out misinformation in the guise of information and matter presented in the form of long columns of figures, has, in itself, a convincing look. People in general will not criticise or even read statistical matter, but they are, notwithstanding the numerous jokes identifying statisticians and liars, tremendously impressed by it. This is what makes the irresistible tendency of the investigator to generalize on insufficient basis so dangerous.

The general public will without question swallow almost any positive statement, accompanied by figures, without stopping for one moment to see whether there is any connection or not. This is particularly mischievous when the public thus impressed is some legislative body, for we cannot believe that even they always give the "statistics" submitted to them a thorough critical examination, but they to a greater extent than the general public, are able to carry out their mistaken ideas in action which affects the entire community.

There is another possibility of harm of which it is perhaps old fashioned to speak, and that is the effect on the families themselves of having their lives and intimate family circum-

stances investigated. These enquiries are in the main carried on, not for pure scientific interest, but for some purpose of social betterment, and it is not so very long ago that persons with such purposes were warned over and over again by their guides and advisers of the dangers of invading the privacy of the home and the necessity of keeping strictly within the limits of confidence, kindness and personal relation, in the work of investigation, which was tolerated only in so far as it was a necessary means for securing the benefit of the family itself.

The newer tendency in social work, to regard outer circumstances of environment, such as food, housing, etc., as the mainly determining factors in social conditions, is for the time leading us to overlook the no less important side—that of individual character—the force that reacts against environment, and develops by laws of its own from within as well as those laid upon it from outside.

If then, in our attempt to get at outer conditions we hurt or injure this delicate root of the inner life, are we not doing a very great and real harm? Self-respect is the foundation of character, and self-respect is accompanied by an instinct for privacy which we should not only refrain from breaking down where it *exists*, but should try our best to build up where it *does not* exist.

If we, as housing reformers, insist upon separate entrances to bedrooms so that different members of the same family shall not intrude on each other, shall we, as statisticians and strangers, ourselves break open those doors, and with pencil and note book in hand, extract the most intimate detail of the family life for public presentation?

The old fashioned treatises on ethics taught us that the most immoral procedure possible toward our fellowman was to treat him as a "thing," not a person. It would be very unfortunate, it seems to me, if in our zeal for investigation, we conveyed the impression to the poor that they were "things" to be weighed, measured and ticketed.

They have enough to bear. Let us at least spare them that, except where we are very sure that some great benefit to them and to society at large will result from it. If the statistical mind needs exercise it can easily get it in some

more innocent way, and if our college professors must provide their students with so called "laboratory work" in social research, let it be among the well-to-do, whose lives also might furnish statistics of a valuable nature, and who are now showing such an interest in social investigation that they ought to be pleased to furnish the material for investigations as well as the funds.

To improve the conditions at present prevailing in social research, several measures can be taken.

In the first place, we should break off the habit of referring every question to statistical investigation as a matter of course; we should determine whether it is not sufficiently plain in its obvious aspects, so as to avoid resorting to a laborious process of proof of something quite well known before. Then it should be made quite certain that the matter in question is susceptible of statistical treatment. Then, whether the results will be worth the time and money spent in getting them. The student of social matters may ask questions enough in half a day, all of more or less interest, and all capable of solution by statistics, to keep an army of investigators busy for years.

If a question is handed over for statistical treatment, sufficient time and money should be allowed to make the results worth while. One great difficulty at present with statistical studies is that so many are of such small scope, and not comparable with each other. The investigators seem to think that by acknowledging that the extent of the investigation is inadequate, they have remedied the defect. But they have not, so long as they continue to publish the "inadequate" material and draw conclusions from it.

What would perhaps be as wholesome a remedy as any for inadequate statistical work would be for those undertaking it to cultivate the old-fashioned moral virtue of self-denial. It is to be suspected that many an investigation is published just because the investigator has got the material together, and although he knows it is inadequate, dislikes to waste it, or because some committee has paid him to produce results, and he wants them to feel that they are getting their money's worth. This idea itself should be combatted not merely for the

sake of getting better statistics, but for the education of the public. It is the duty of the statistician not only to urge the value and necessity of adequate and proper statistics, but also to stand firmly against the production of what is useless and misleading, and to make plain that the money appropriated for an investigation is better spent when the results are withheld if they prove to be negative or valueless, than if they are "saved" by being published.

It is obvious that there is need of a better technique in the presentation of social statistics. There is no excuse for slovenly tables that even the expert must take a week to study out, and that the ordinary reader can make nothing of except what the investigator gives him in his deductions. This is entirely unnecessary. In almost every matter dealt with in social research, the material can be so arranged and explained that the average man may and should find it illuminating and instructive.

One reason for this lack of clearness in presentation is the fact that so many untrained persons are engaged in this work. When an investigation is undertaken the workers are gathered from hither and yon as best they may be, some with one qualification, some with another, including some who seem to think it an interesting trait that "they don't like mathematics" and that they always did "hate to add."

It is of course possible to make use of untrained assistants under competent supervision, but I regret to say that even the directors of investigations are not always as careful in their own statistical methods as they might be, and do not always give really conscientious, careful supervision to their workers. Many an investigation is carried on, and the results published under the guarantee of some statistical authority of weight, or some committee of experts, in which the inexperienced and often untrained investigator is left very much to his own devices, to form his own plans, frame his own tables, and draw his own conclusions without that careful, critical examination of methods and results by his chief, which is his due.

Finally there is need for the development of new technical methods, suitable for social research. The mathematical experts, with their elaborate formulae, are as a rule not sufficiently interested in social questions, nor do the methods worked out

for other sciences apply to most of the questions the social investigator wants to study.

The social scientist, on the other hand, is apt to be deficient in the mathematical sense, as to where numbers apply and where they do not. What is needed is a new variety of expert, one who has at the same time the sense of numbers and the sense of social values. Meanwhile, if all interested in these matters will set to work patiently and conscientiously at the task of improving our methods, perhaps finally the fitting type of method and of investigator will appear.

DISCUSSION

MR. HUGH F. FOX, of Plainfield, New Jersey—I want to suggest the need of constructive criticism and analysis of the reports of our public and private institutions, with a view especially to establishing a standard of comparison. There is no publication, or agency, in this country, which fills this need at all adequately. Let me suggest, through this important section of our Conference, the possibility of making the Conference Bulletin a quarterly review of this kind. Would it not be a good thing for the Conference to employ trained talent for this purpose? There are only a few states in which the reports of the State Boards and Institutions are edited, or analysed, or their meaning interpreted to the public. If we could have such reports from all our State Boards of Charities, as for instance the reports of Indiana, New York and Massachusetts, and a few other states, we should know what progress is being made and be able to form a better idea of the cause and cost of many of our social evils. Some of the reports of volunteer and private philanthropic agencies are full and fair, and very valuable. Many of them, however, are simply a special plea for the particular organization, and are little more than a bid for subscriptions. Then, too, there is the need of searching criticism of statistical statements. Several glaring instances of over-statement have attracted public attention during the past year, notably in connection with dependent children, "breakfastless" children, child labor, and the statistics of the temperance reformers. For the information and guidance of our own members, as well as for the public, such errors ought to be exposed, in order that we may not have a false measure of the difficulties with which we are grappling; but above all, the criticism should be of a helpful character.

PROF. BLACKMAR, of Kansas—There should be some competent agency ready at all times to assist societies and institutions in devising a model system of records. As has been shown by Miss Claghorn's paper, the difficulty of half knowledge and the ill results of imperfect investigation are giving us very serious results. Many people collect statistics and carry on social investigations—which is the most difficult investigation there is—who don't know how to count. They can't find the recurring social unit that they wish to get the result from. Again some people carry on investigations who cannot estimate value, and there are those who have not the power of exclusion whereby they can exclude all but the one recurring factor, and get the result. Then many investigate from a special point of view. They see things from certain environments and standpoints, and fail to take in the whole condition, while the social result may have a dozen immediate causes and perhaps a hundred remote causes. Such a point of view distorts the investigation. Many of our statistics are carried on from the idea of a

propaganda wanting to prove something for a special purpose. Thus we are getting half knowledge and imperfect knowledge because there is no system, no standard and no ideal. It is the purpose of this committtee to furnish such an ideal and such a standard.

PROF. KELSEY, of Philadelphia—Those of us who are teaching in universities have occasion to use these ready made statistics. Last week I was called to pass judgment on the method employed by a state official in Pennsylvania who, to prove his point, instead of taking the statistics of his own first year, which he claims to be absolutely reliable, took his estimate of what the situation was the year before, based on the interpretation of his predecessor's statistics which he said were not reliable. I went to the office of another public agency in Pennsylvania—our Board of Health—and I took the report of the last year. I turned to the chief and said: "How do you account for this change in mortality statistics?" He looked at it a moment and said: "There were more deaths in the first place." The significance of all this is more serious when we realize that few people are being trained to use statistics. In few universities is much attention paid to training in statistics, largely because there is so little demand for trained statisticians. The business corporations are developing their own statisticians, who as a rule are vastly superior to those engaged in social operations. We have not had for seven or eight years in the University of Pennsylvania a man thoroughly competent to teach the subject.

MR. W. A. GATES, of California—In regard to the collection of statistics, the great difficulty we have is to get reports from the managers of institutions, and when they do make them, it is almost impossible to tell what they mean. Some reports have to be sent back four or five times to be corrected. The state institutions' reports are usually all right, but the county institutions' reports are not. And when it comes to private institutions I confess I don't know how many orphans there are in the asylums of California. And what is more important and more to the point, I can't find out that any orphan asylum knows how many it has under its supervision that have gone out, or what becomes of those who have gone out.

MRS. ROSENBERG, of Pittsburg—Perhaps the superintendents of institutions are expected to do more than we would reasonably demand of any other individual, and perhaps it lies within the province of this organization to recommend a clerk whose business it would be to keep correct statistics along the lines of uniformity. I think that until we develop an accurate knowledge along these lines, we shall not do all that we ought to do. I would approach a hospital from one point of view, and something else from another point of view. Can we demand of the superintendents to keep three or four, or even as high as six different sets of statistics? Their labor is of a different nature, it is supervision of detail work. I therefore make the suggestion that we develop some sort of uniformity for certain lines of institutions so we will know what is wanted. When we have that, we can easily expect to get a trained worker who shall be a paid clerk, devoting a good part of his time to the study of this work which has been so much neglected.

THE CHAIRMAN—We must develop some agency that can stand ready to provide the necessary advice in regard to records, and to prepare model systems of records for the detail work of institutions and agencies. I think that this is what strikes at the root of the matter.

THE STATISTICAL TEST IN CHILDREN'S WORK*

BY C. C. CARSTENS, SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY TO PROTECT CHILDREN FROM CRUELTY, BOSTON

In the development of every form of social work, it is natural that there should be a stage when the effort of the working force should be entirely directed toward rendering the service for which the society was founded. For instance, a child saving society like the one with which I am connected must for a considerable time work to establish itself in the confidence of the people through its work with the individual case. During this time it publishes only such facts and figures in its annual reports as will satisfy its constituency in the belief that the money placed at its disposal has been, on general principles, wisely spent.

The period when a charitable organization maintains this policy generally lasts not only through the time during which its executive staff consists of more or less successful imitators, but also into that period when its executives have become conscious of a desire to plan and to build for themselves a structure of work which shall more perfectly satisfy the needs of the community in which their lot has been cast.

When a worker in children's charities has reached the point where he wishes to transmute his belief in various lines of work into convictions, and begins to look about him either in the work of his own or his neighbors' society or organization, he is struck by the paucity of the correlate facts available. With very few exceptions, children's charities are content to give tables of population, which while important in revealing the magnitude of their work, a subject in which alone contributors are thought to take an interest, do not reveal such a body of knowledge as they could easily gather and which they could easily cast in such forms as to have a statistical value for any who are by nature or by training able to draw correct conclusions. When our thoughts turn to the furnishing of valuable data, our first concern should certainly be to give the census of

* This paper and the discussion following were presented at a joint section meeting of the Committees on Statistics and Children.

society or institution in such form as will make it useful for comparison with the figures of other children's agencies. But facts giving the society's census, the per capita cost, and other information regarding nationality or religion are to my mind only a part of what each children's agency should furnish each year. It should also give a critical and statistical study of some portion of its previous year's work.

There is an inevitable tendency on the part of any organization, commercial, manufacturing or philanthropic, under the pressure of new work, to go on carrying out the details of a preconceived and well established plan. In a well organized business, at least one official and often several are charged with the testing of results. The sacredly observed traditions of the house are picked to pieces if the results do not come. Old methods are not thrown aside without a better substitute, but the elements of success and failure are carefully analyzed.

It is this analysis for which we must strive in children's and other philanthropic work. The work of a society for the prevention of cruelty to children is now concerned mostly with physical and moral neglect of children. The various societies of this name, as well as the humane societies, annually remove from the custody of parents, thousands of children in this broad land. Is there in the annual reports of these hundreds of societies any data which throws light upon the wisdom of this method? It is a tradition in our societies that we are accomplishing a large amount of good by removing the children from drunken and dissolute parents, but suppose some positive and inquiring or obstinate judge would say, "prove to me that these children whom I have removed before at your request have become good average citizens in the majority of cases, and have not, instead, been robbed of parental ties, filial affections, and have become inmates of children's institutions, truant schools or reform schools." Our indignation would know no bounds, but we should be embarrassed in our search for the facts to refute this impertinent judge. We would hasten to tell him of the young people who in the course of years come singly to our offices to call us blessed, but we would have to admit that even these do not entirely convince us of the success of our plans.

There are at least two methods in vogue for testing the work of any organization—the first that of answering each inquiry regarding the efficacy of a method by some telling individual instances of success; the other, by classified statistics built up on the basis of the law of averages.

It would be useful if we had at hand well attested facts and figures regarding our belief that the permanent removal of children from an immoral mother before the age of seven, and placing in a good home, almost invariably saves the children from lives of immorality, or that the removal of children from drinking parents without insisting, through a court order, on parental responsibility for their support, is like kicking the parents into the deepest ditch from which nothing but a miracle will save them. If we could prove these principles statistically, we could convince many a judge and many an official of the wisdom of our plans.

We need light on questions of intemperance, immorality and non-support, and on children's and family probation. We need to know the power of systematic guardianship for the neglected. In guardianship, as in so many other lines of social work, success is generally unheralded. It is the failing guardian that is most apt to resign. To base important conclusions upon this presumption of failure due to individual cases is fallacious.

As it is in the work of a society for the prevention of cruelty to children so is it in other children's work. We need light on a great many questions. Statistical and scientific study and tabulation has gone further in dealing with delinquent and defective than with dependent children, but in many instances the material is undigested and unharmoniously gotten together so that results of various institutions cannot be compared.

In considering dependent children we need to have a modification of institution and society censuses by eliminating those whose board is being paid for by the relatives, if not by the parents themselves. We need to get our dependent children's total by adding the averages of institutions' inmates per day, rather than the totals of inmates of all institutions, so as to prevent overlapping of population statistics. Perhaps by a statistical study of results we could learn what children, if any, need

the regimen of institutional care; what children, if any, thrive under the training of a family home; what children, if any, and what circumstances, lend themselves to successful free placing; what children, if any, and what circumstances, require a boarding home. Statistical information, interpreted by the philosopher, is needed to give convincing evidence on these important questions.

Even if I have convinced my fellow workers of the theoretical value of such plans, I shall doubtless be met with the question of how and when to do this. But does the successful man in commerce or manufacturing of today shake his head and say we do not have time to study results? He considers this an integral part of his work.

First, then, it is important that some uniform methods of statistical report should be adopted, forms such as are to be presented for discussion at this meeting, and I hope, in essentials, to be adopted.

In order that these reports may be easily made up from the individual case records, it is desirable that the card record should contain the same classes of data. Seven of the child helping agencies of Massachusetts have adopted, after two years' careful study, an identical card from which such a report is easily made. The agencies are the Boston Children's Aid Society, Boston Children's Friend Society, Massachusetts Infant Asylum, State Board of Charity of Massachusetts, Children's Mission, Boston Female Asylum, and Worcester Children's Friend Society. This card would be worth studying by any other children's agency before adopting a new one. If a considerable number of the agencies should find it to be suitable, it might easily become the basis of children's statistics.

But secondly, the executive of a well established society should not be content with its population statistics. He should make a more careful study of some of its work. Under the pressure of new work he should none the less have time for self-examination, and should aim to make each year a contribution to a better knowledge of the work of his own society and of children's work in general. Publicity would resolve doubts and establish us in better methods.

I am not unmindful of the dangers which one who has

not the statistical mind runs in making statistical studies, pointed out in an earlier paper in this conference. The primary concern of each agency should be to gather simple data that will have a statistical value. This can best be done by closely co-ordinating our work with such an agency as the American Statistical Association, which has already published studies on philanthropic subjects, and which would gladly give suggestions as to what statistics are important and how statistics can be made most useful. It is not impossible that this National Conference itself should have an expert who could advise and co-ordinate statistical work. Thus far it is safe for any organization to go and thus far each organization must go to do its full duty to the community. It is only when this work of studying results is given a share of the executive's time in a small society or institution or when a department on results is established in the large societies that we can hope to know actually how to defend the faith that is in us, or what is more likely to be the case, modify our theories in many important particulars, nay, build a new philosophy in a number of fields upon the sure foundation of facts.

DISCUSSION

MISS CURTIS—The results of soul-searching statistical revelations was shown last year by Mrs. Evans, of Boston. Up to the time of the World's Fair in Chicago, there had been a general sketch prepared of the careers of the boys who had left the Lyman school. But when they came to make a careful study they found they had to reduce the percentage of success in a very appreciable degree. Since then they have made a most searching analysis of the result of their work in the lives of the boys.

MR. AMOS W. BUTLER—I will call attention to the schedule which is printed and at the request of a member of the committee, Miss Greely, of Indianapolis, present some suggestions of ways in which it can be modified according to her experience, which has been a very wide one. You will notice this schedule for the use of child-helping societies is divided into a series of groups, but there are only two points concerning which I wish to speak. I will pass over the first and second groups, and call your attention to the third.

SUGGESTED SCHEDULE FOR CHILD HELPING AGENCIES.

I. Children in Whose Behalf Applications Were Made, by Classes:

1. Number dependent ..... _____
2. Number neglected ..... _____
3. Number delinquent ..... _____
4. Number defective ..... _____

Total

II. Disposition of All Children:

1. Referred to other organizations..... ———
2. Boarding places found for..... ———
3. Situations found for mother with board of child.. ———
4. Committed to public authorities..... ———
5. Sent to placing out department..... ———
6. Otherwise disposed of..... ———
7. Number advised only ..... ———

Total as above

III. Children Received for Placing Out or Boarding Out or for Institutional Care:

1. Number on hand at beginning of year..... ———
2. Number received during year first time..... ———
3. Number of children of previous years returned.... ———
4. Total number of different children received during year ..... ———
5. Of the above number there were returned for replacement ..... ———

Grand total

6. Number placed first time during year..... ———
7. Number of replacements..... ———
8. Total placements and replacements..... ———
9. Number returned to relatives..... ———
10. Number placed in institutions..... ———
11. Number otherwise disposed of..... ———
12. Number died ..... ———
13. Number on hand at close of year..... ———

Grand total as above

IV. Force Employed:

1. Number of paid employes..... ———
2. Number of volunteers who have given active service during year:
   - *a.* As visitors ..... ———
   - *b.* As members of committees..... ———
   - *c.* In other ways..... ———

Total

V. Financial Statement:

1. Current Receipts for Year:
   - *a.* From public funds.....$———
   - *b.* From friends for care of children..... ———
   - *c.* From all other sources..... ———

   Total current receipts $
2. Current Expenses for Year:
   - *a.* For salaries .....$———
   - *b.* For traveling expenses of officers and children ..... ———
   - *c.* For maintenance of institutions..... ———
   - *d.* For board of children in family homes..... ———
   - *e.* Miscellaneous expense ..... ———

   Total current expenses $———

3. VALUE OF PROPERTY OWNED:
   a. Value of lands, buildings, furniture, etc.....$————
   b. Amount of endowments and invested funds.. ————
   Total $————
4. Annual per capita cost of children kept in institution ..... ————
5. Annual per capita cost of board, clothing and medical expenses of children boarded out..$————

Miss Greely suggests a change from the suggested schedule as follows:

"Children received for placing out, or boarding out or for institutional care."

Number of children on hand at beginning of year..... ————
Number received during year, first time..... ————
Number of children of previous years returned..... ————
Total cared for during year..... ————

Disposition of above:

Placed in homes but once..... ————
Placed in homes more than once ..... ————
Returned to relatives ..... ————
Placed in other institutions..... ————
Otherwise disposed of..... ————
Died ..... ————
Total ..... ————
Number of children on hand at close of year..... ————

DR. HART—The total as presented in this schedule could not be correct. If a child is placed once and placed more than once, is that not the same child? If you have been accustomed to inspect the statistics of institutions and societies, you know how difficult it is to understand them, and reduce them to common terms. I show the total number of different children cared for and the total number of replacements. I found it was regarded as discreditable to replace a child. An official auditor audited our accounts some years ago, and he wrote a letter to the board of directors and said: "I find the accounts properly kept and the financial system is adequate, but I find out of forty-five thousand dollars fully half was spent for salaries and only nine thousand for the benefit of the children." That is what we paid for boarding the children in our receiving homes and in families. But the personal work that had been done in visiting the children and finding homes he regarded as so much money wasted.

MR. BUTLER—We ought to express our thanks to the members of the committee who have worked these things out. There is no difficulty in arranging two sets of figures or two classifications in the fifth paragraph. The point that was made by Miss Greely is that in institution work there is no reason for having one form of classification for the children's institution, and another form for state institutions some of which are children's institutions.

DR. HART—Let their institutional work be so much put in together. Then let them make a separate report for the other institutions and take that by itself and classify it. In other words, make two reports.

DR. DENNIS—I see no item here as to results. What will satisfy the public most in these statistics will be the results in ultimate manhood and womanhood on the part of these children placed out and replaced.

MISS CURTIS—Those are the most intangible and invisible results, and probably never can be classified.

MR. CROUSE, of Cincinnati—When I went to the Children's Home in Cincinnati twenty-seven years ago I made statistics for several years and the greatest difficulty was getting anybody to take any interest in them. Mr. Birtwell struck the key to the whole melody when he said the outcome of each individual is what we are interested in.

DR. BRACKETT—I wonder whether in the future it would not be possible to define the word "dependent," and put it in some such way as children who are received because they lack proper care-takers, and "neglected," those who are without suitable care-takers.

MR. STONE—At our State Conference of Charities three years ago a committee was appointed known as "The Committee on Results." The child-caring agencies of the state realized that a number of them were working along different lines, and they tried to get some uniform schedule of making reports. Very interesting reports were made the first and second years. The third year the committee compiled a somewhat similar schedule, but a little more elaborate. They were requested in making out their next report to try to secure the information given on this schedule. It is said the next Massachusetts Conference will have an exhibit of reports which will show just what each society is doing and what they lack in their reports.

MISS RALPH—When is a child doing well? There has been no standard set by which to gauge this. Is a child doing well because he has the ability, or is the standard to be according to the effort he puts forth in his attempt to do better?

MR. CROUSE—We made a careful report of our children from twenty-one years old up to forty-eight. Out of thirty-nine hundred we found that only five had ever been convicted of felony.

MISS CURTIS—The committing of a felony or going to another institution is a pretty positive fact. But the actual success of the character of an individual child after many years is a more doubtful matter.

MR. SOLENBERGER—Is there a standard for determining whether a child is defective?

MR. STONE—We hope something of that sort will be developed later on. We don't want to frighten most of the societies by going into the schedule too elaborately.

MISS CURTIS—We try to have our reports set out what is the purpose or the object of the society; what class of children the society undertakes to care for; whether it is a temporary home or gives permanent care; whether legal guardianship is assumed by the society, or whether the object was to relieve the parents of the care for a short time. These things are needed, and yet they are seldom given in reports. The object of the society should be on the first page of every annual report.

MR. STONE—I should like to call attention to the May number of Charities and the Commons, which contains a very interesting account of statistical study made by Mrs. Evans.

MR. ROBINSON—We have a systematic examination of the homes of all the children we discharge. We follow them up, and yet there is great difficulty in ascertaining the exact progress of the child. We call a child doing well if it is earning something and attending to its duties in the family. But to follow a child for several years it seems to me is impossible. It is not looked upon kindly by the foster parents, nor by the child himself after he has

become eighteen or nineteen. We put a summary in our report every year of these children. A child to be delinquent must have broken some law. Some neglected children are also delinquent. We had two or three children last year whom we have placed eight or ten times. Many have been placed five or six times.

JUDGE DELACY, of Washington—I think you may all see readily that in the last analysis the main difficulty is that a child refuses to stay "put." Many are of a fugitive nature. A word in regard to the delinquent child. The finger of scorn is pointed at him, and he is regarded as a hopeless case in the community. Trained workers know that the dependent child, nine times out of ten, comes from more forbidding surroundings, and is a far greater danger to the community than the child who has casually broken a law, and is therefore dubbed a delinquent. As to the distinction between delinquent and neglected children, so far as the Juvenile Court in Washington is concerned, a dependent child is regarded as a child of poor parents. The neglected child is the child out of a vicious home.

Press and Publicity

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY H. WIRT STEELE, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY OF THE MARYLAND ASSOCIATION FOR THE PREVENTION AND RELIEF OF TUBERCULOSIS, CHAIRMAN

PUBLICITY IN SOCIAL WORK

All social work—and by social work I mean all organized efforts for the amelioration or correction of conditions under which people live—to succeed, must be democratic. We have learned, after many centuries, that charity is not a prerogative of a select group of people, not a virtue attainable only by the rich and bestowed upon the poor; but some of the most profoundly great acts of charity are performed by the poor themselves. We have seen the sharing of bread among families in the tenements, we have served upon the same district committees with millionaire manufacturer and poor German housewife, and have seen them both contribute from their respective stores of goods, information, or experience to the end that some family's need might be removed. Democracy in this kind of effort has always, in my experience, made for higher efficiency in service. The food shared by one poor family with another poor family enabled the breadwinners of the latter to regain their earning power. The German housewife was enabled by experience to give helpful advice on the problems of domestic economy confronting her committee, and she in turn felt a sense of efficiency and usefulness which made her a more effective member of society.

Assuming, then, that democracy is desirable, how may it be attained? If there is any one royal road, it undoubtedly is through education.

Of all the educational agencies, the one probably best

adapted to the education of an adult public is embraced in the generic term "publicity."

We are not concerned just now with the larger question, "what constitutes legitimate publicity?" but rather with the lesser one, "what instruments of publicity are best adapted to the task of educating the public in the matter of social work, and promoting a truer democracy in such efforts?"

Immediately the following list suggests itself:

1,—Published reports.
2,—Circulars and pamphlets.
3,—Books.
4,—Magazines.
5,—Newspapers (news stories, editorials, and paid ads).
6,—Public addresses and debates.
7,—Lectures, stereopticon shows, and exhibits.
8,—Bill boards and posters.
9,—Street car advertising.

All of these means have been utilized singly or in combinations by many social workers with varying degrees of success.

While nearly all of the questions and problems which arise in social work have been threshed over again and again at the sessions of the National Conference of Charities and Correction during the past thirty-five years, this subject of "publicity" as a distinct problem was never considered until this year. In 1907 the Conference, meeting in Minneapolis, created a standing committee on "Press and Publicity." During the past year as chairman of that committee I have made an extended inquiry, with a view to learning what the social workers of this country are doing by way of public education through publicity.

Schedules of information were returned from 68 cities. Most of these were from Charity Organization Societies. In 20 instances the officers and managers of these societies have paid no attention to publicity at all. In 31 others news items are sometimes given to the papers, but with no idea of sequence or of the psychology involved.

Some semblance of a plan is being worked out in 11 cities, but only in six places is there what might be considered a complete plan of campaign. Some of these plans were discussed at the National Conference of Charities.

On the whole it seems that within the last few years newspaper men, magazine publishers, and other publicists have begun to realize the significance of charitable and correctional work; they have begun to see the real social and economic significance of this work, and, approaching it in the light of this new vision, the whole tenor of news stories and editorials in the American press has gradually undergone a change, we feel for the better. In other words, the newspaper man, the publicist, has begun to recognize that he has a definite responsibility in relation to the work for social uplift. This realization seems to be reflected very clearly, both in news items and stories, and in the tone of editorials.

Some half dozen or more years ago some city editors of daily papers, more especially Sunday editors, began to feature what they called the "H. I. Story," the "Human Interest Story." For a time these stories, prepared by reporters and special writers, who were uninitiated in the detail of social work, were more or less sentimental, and a great deal of the matter so published in the name of the "Human Interest Story" was slush, no more nor less. However, more recently the character of these stories has changed so that, to-day, a Sunday editor in asking the reporter to write a "human interest story" for Sunday, expects that reporter to tell with an accuracy as nearly as possible approximating the scientific, what the real facts are; which he is beginning to do in a clear way, and with a style that is peculiar to American journalism; that is, a style that reads easily, and makes people and events live, for their readers.

The work of this committee developed the fact that in only three or four centers in the United States are the people engaged in philanthropic work conducting anything like an adequate campaign of publicity. In these centers charitable societies have either developed special agents by taking them from the newspaper office and training them, or providing newspaper training for social workers. In one city the General Secretary of the Associated Charities prepares a daily story for the newspaper; in another a newspaper reporter who has had some experience in charitable work, is subsidized and paid at the rate of three or four dollars a column for material which he prepares and which is accepted by the press. In still another, a trained news-

paper man is employed as publicity agent and financial secretary. A number of cities reported that they had the sympathy and co-operation of newspaper editors, although no definite plan of campaign has been evolved.

One of the more adequate plans is suggested in the address to be made by Mr. A. W. McDougall, which will be presented.

Mr. Weller, of Washington, D. C., who also will present an address on the subject, sends the following contribution to this report:

> A conference of newspaper managers has been held in our city. There three of our four papers were represented by the men who control them, and the fourth paper, which was not represented at the meeting, had declared its sympathy and promised full co-operation.
>
> The enclosed list of questions and suggestions was read. The newspaper men decided to recommend to the general Joint Finance Committee that a trained newspaper man of the right spirit be employed at $20 or $25 a week for six or eight weeks to give his entire time to preparing acceptable copy for the newspapers. This man is to be selected by the "Sub-committee on Popular Education," as we call this group of newspaper managers.
>
> In addition, each of the newspapers promised to have members of their staffs write some articles occasionally.
>
> As to the type of article it seemed to be agreed that short statements of only a quarter or half a column are more effective than articles of one or two columns length. The importance of stories of human interest was also emphasized and it was suggested that the "most effective stories contain an element of pathos, romance, heroism, humor or oddity." It was agreed, however, that any case-story must be told in a way not to advertise the name or address of particular families or to subject them to any comment from their neighbors and friends.
>
> The newspaper men suggested also that a large number of volunteers be enlisted for a personal house to house canvass which the newspapers shall advertise in advance and follow up vigorously throughout the canvass. It was suggested that each volunteer be given one block or street through which to distribute subscription blanks and a printed appeal to be called for again at a specified time.
>
> These suggestions are to be discussed next Thursday afternoon at a meeting of our Joint Finance Committee. At that time we are also to consider the possibility of circulating subscription blanks in the government departments, where some 30,000 people are employed.
>
> Ten years ago some of the local papers published scathing criticisms upon the Associated Charities. At present they give us a great deal of space, for I have been sending down at least one article every day and sometimes more than one. They also refuse to publish appeals without our recommendation. On their own motion several of the strongest papers have repeatedly printed editorials endorsing our work and explaining it with intelligent effectiveness. Our lists of contributors are, as you know, printed in the papers daily, accompanied by a sentence or two suggesting our need for funds or reporting some encouraging experience which is apt to stimulate subscriptions.

The following is the list of questions mentioned above:

SUGGESTED FOR CONSIDERATION BY THE "SUB-COMMITTEE ON POPULAR EDUCATION."

THE TASK:

To educate the community to a proper understanding of the problems of the poor, to an adequate effort for the removal of some of the causes of dependence, and to such practical Christianity as will express itself in volunteer personal service for the upbuilding of distressed, degraded and undeveloped people.

QUESTIONS:

First, How shall the community be brought to understand that charity means more than material alms and that money spent for trained personal service is given to the needy in the most effective form?

Second, How shall it be made clear that instead of encouraging idleness and increasing the difficulty of securing servants, the Associated Charities is the community's one and only general measure for the reduction and prevention of pauperism and the promotion of self support?

How shall we induce householders, business men, churches and charities to use the Associated Charities' records, to have its agents report concerning applicants and to co-operate in each case with other helpers interested in the same family?

How shall we make clear to the people that nearly four-fifths of all the cases dealt with do not require material alms, but such personal service as will mean employment, medical treatment, the correction of bad habits, encouragement, counsel and improved conditions? How shall capable volunteers be enlisted for this work?

METHODS SUGGESTED BY MEMBERS OF THIS SUB-COMMITTEE:

First, that the four newspapers be asked to appreciate the importance of this campaign and to have members of their staffs cover it regularly.

Second, that the committee pay about $3 a column to a trained writer for preparing material which the newspapers will consider acceptable.

Third, that the advertising departments be asked to contribute space for a two-column square ad occasionally, to set forth strong facts briefly in a striking fashion.

Fourth, that pictures illustrating local needs be published occasionally in the newspapers with appropriate explanations.

Fifth, that typical stories of needy families be prepared and published in a way not to advertise the specific households.

Sixth, that newspaper representatives and influential citizens be taken on tours of inspection and reports of these tours be printed.

Seventh, that all the newspapers be asked to publish daily the lists of contributors to the three charities, preceded by a very short statement of needs or of encouraging responses already received.

Eighth, that influential citizens be interviewed concerning local needs and the value of this work.

In the last analysis it seems that right publicity will only be secured after a thorough cultivation of newspaper men in the locality where the publicity is to be secured; by securing their real interest and by giving them a clear understanding of the aim and objects of the work being done and the results sought for.

When this is done most editors will realize the importance of social work and will not give space grudgingly, but will seek to give to all of their news and editorial matter the color and tone which will enlist the sympathy and support of their readers and so promote the democratization of social effort.

Not the least important side of publicity work is its influence on the financial support of charitable and correctional effort, either private or public. The statement was made that no such effort which tells its whole story and tells it well, if it is doing a legitimate piece of work or meeting a legitimate need, will lack for financial assistance, whether it must depend on private and voluntary contributions or secure appropriation from legislative bodies.

PUBLICITY IN CHARITABLE WORK FROM THE NEWSPAPER POINT OF VIEW

BY EDWARD E. SHAW, MANAGER, WASHINGTON TIMES, WASHINGTON, D. C.

When you go about the city on the most modern of sightseeing expeditions by the medium of the big lumbering automobile, what is it that the guide points out to you?

The big things.
The odd things.
The dramatic things.
The romantic things.
The pathetic things.
The humorous things.

And why? Because he has been taking human nature around with him on these trips day after day and finds that these are the things to which all of his auditors respond. And he must be interesting all the time to all his audience.

He who would appeal to the public in mass, he who would interest them for any purpose, must find his method through the medium of the big, odd, humorous, dramatic, romantic and pathetic things.

Can you imagine the guide, as the big wagon passes the home of the Associated Charities or of one of its branches, saying, "Here on the left, Ladies and Gentlemen, is the headquarters of the Associated Charities, the organization which seeks to teach men and women to improve their own conditions, which extends the guiding hand of friendship to lift them over the difficulties of misfortune and hardship. Led by a group of workers inspired by love for their fellow-men, students of system, modest in accepting recognition, they find their most satisfying recompense in the sight of those who have grown in character and independence, and in the knowledge that their work has helped. Joined with this group are a limited number who give to the work such time as they may beyond the demands of their bread-winning occupations. For financial backing, for the money that must come to make possible even a fraction of the possible good, the organization must depend upon the voluntary contributions of a small circle of philanthropic people, the same narrow circle to which every money-seeking enterprise, good or bad, selfish or unselfish, makes appeal.

"These men and women of the Associated Charities shrink from public praise and, moreover, jealously guard the names and life stories of the people to whose betterment they are giving their work and love."

Could you imagine, I say, a guide who pretends to show the visitors the enterprising and the important factors in the city's life, saying these things of the Associated Charities or even pointing out its habitation? Yet if you could take any one of the audience off into a quiet corner and talk with him seriously, you would find him ready to agree that the greatest work of any city is improving the character and standard of living of its people.

If you feel that my statements so far have truth in them then you will follow naturally to the next step in the reasoning —that the average citizen does not seek out the machinery through which philanthropic work is done. He even avoids it. Why? Because he doesn't want to get out of the habits into which his daily life has grown. And, more important—because the sight of distress is unpleasant to him and he knows that if he is brought face to face with it he will inevitably sacrifice

something of his time and money in an effort to alleviate it. A man may live fifty miles up the Potomac river and let the drainage from his place carry pollution into the river from which Washington must get its drinking supply. The fact doesn't disturb him, because he doesn't personally see any tragedy in it. But let him come to Washington to the home of stranger or friend into which typhoid fever has entered because of his carelessness, let him see the suffering, the anxious care of the family, the dread and horror that death may come to a loved one and do you think that he can go back to his home up the river and let the drainage flow unchecked into the Potomac?

Or take an instance from real and recent life. This winter it chanced that I was the instrument of introducing to Mr. Weller, of the Associated Charities of Washington, a young newspaper man, a candidate for the doing of some publicity work the organization had in mind. The young man entered upon it with the blase air of a newspaper man of limited experience, interested only in that the position meant money to him. But when after a week's experience, it was found that he had not had the special training that fitted him for publicity work, it was found also that the actual contact with the Associated Charities and their cases had already so appealed to the human sympathy in him that he abandoned newspaper work to take a very minor position with the Associated Charities.

I cannot prove my contention to you by citing two cases, one real and one fanciful, but perhaps I can help to bring to your mind so many instances in your own experience that you will say at once with me that the way to interest men and women in philanthropic work, the way to enlist their active cooperation, is either to bring them into personal touch with distress or dependence, or in narration to make that distress, the suffering, the sickness, the heroism that run through all your work, so real, so vivid, so living to them that the description makes of the characters real breathing people.

A Washington paper a little while ago printed an editorial emphasizing the immediate need for money lest the work of the Associated Charities be crippled and urging earnestly the readers of the paper to contribute. The response was two ten-dollar checks and one of these came from the writer of the edi-

torial. Another paper in the same city at another time printed in its news columns a story of a woman who was fighting for the livelihood of her children, weak, underfed, but uncomplaining, weighted down by a drunken husband who took from the very hands of the children the money that might buy them food. The story made its characters live to the reader. Though no contribution was directly asked, though no name nor address of the family was given, the response to the Associated Charities in their behalf within twenty-four hours totaled $124, with a variety of gifts of supplies.

All publicity is good, but some kinds are a lot more efficient than others. Publicity means only passing the word along. When one man is told by another of the Associated Charities and the means by which it seeks its objects, that is publicity—limited, of course. When an agent of the Associated Charities gives a lecture in some hall, detailing method and scope, that is publicity, more effective than the first chiefly in that it reaches more people in the same time and is told in the language of one who has seen these things. When through some source a newspaper article is printed, telling of the same things, that again is publicity and perhaps more effective in that more people may read it. But I very strongly doubt the effectiveness of the usual newspaper article. That it makes the name of the Associated Charities familiar to a section of the public, is, of course, true, but that it is of much more value, I doubt. For the same reason that the man up the Potomac would not care until he actually saw the typhoid fever case, the newspaper reader who is not otherwise interested does not care as long as the article makes no appeal to his personal sympathies.

The task you have is two-sided—on the one side the teaching of the dependent, the cheering of the discouraged, so that they shall again catch step with those who would meet the world confidently; on the other, the bringing the strong to understand the weak, the showing them the need for help and what may be accomplished and then directing what they may and shall do.

The work of the Associated Charities and organizations of similar character should not be limited in each community to a little group of self-sacrificing men and women, reinforced by a little company of givers of money, while the great majority

of the community pass heedlessly along, comfortable in the thought, if they think at all, that some one else will bear the burden. It is as important that each man and woman should feel a personal responsibility in the caring for the needy as that the needy should be cared for.

I am sure that I do not need to emphasize this thought to you. You are constantly seeking to widen the circle.

Let us take a lesson from The Jungle. Analyse it a moment. What does it consist of? Pathos, suffering, self-denial, hopes raised up and shattered, hopes renewed, love and sacrifice that came trustingly up to the merciless Juggernaut of modern commercialism and were swept under and crushed. Nothing so far that marks the book greater in appeal than a thousand others. But—and here are the two points that make the book stand out from others with all of us—the scenes were portrayed as being close to us and the characters so vividly, so lovingly, so intimately drawn that they became real flesh and blood to us and we winced when they suffered, our heartstrings were tight with apprehension of their misfortune, our grief as sore almost as theirs when disaster came. Jurgis and Ona were much closer to us than the unfortunates we pass daily on the streets in our own home cities.

What was the response to the book? Public opinion demanded that conditions be changed. The whole country cried out that reforms must come and this, mind you, in echo of a story that was in great part fiction, whose characters were not living individuals, but only composites. But it was the harvest of publicity.

Take an example from real life—the San Francisco earthquake. The sufferings there were not greater than happen every day in the streets of our homes. But San Francisco was spectacular, the disaster unusual and overwhelming and the attention of the world was attracted through the news reports. Didn't your city raise more money for the aid of those distant brothers and sisters than it did the same year for the aid of its own people? Ours did.

There again the objects of their gifts had been brought near to them.

Haven't you all the conditions of suffering, of sacrifice, of

heroism that would bring the same response if only they were brought as vividly to the public's attention?

One of your well-known workers in Baltimore, Mr. Steele, was the originator and manager of the most successful publicity campaign applied to philanthropic work of which I know. Many of you perhaps have a more detailed knowledge of what was done than I, but the essential points, as I recall them, ran about as follows:

It was desired to raise a sum of money running into the thousands for work for the prevention of tuberculosis. So Mr. Steele told the public through the newspapers and such other means as were available, the old story of the narrow and perilous path along the face of the high cliff, a path which, as it turned one projection, suddenly narrowed till a foothold was barely possible. So many travelers fell here that a watchman was constantly kept at the foot of the cliff to carry away the bodies of the lifeless or the maimed. These conditions continued for years until some one bothered himself to build a fence at the outside of the path at the turn. This done, there were no more accidents and the watchman was dismissed.

This story was applied to the usual treatment of tuberculosis. Along the path humanity travels and the frequent victim of the tuberculosis turn is picked up by an ambulance stationed at the foot of the cliff and carted away to the hospital. The obvious moral was that a fence was needed and the slogan, "We are going to build the fence on May 10th." Among other things, billboards were used, I think, to picture the cliff with its waiting ambulance and to present in huge letters the question, "Will you help build the fence."

Systematically utilizing every method of reaching the people, the campaign was brought to a climax on that day. Hundreds of contributions came in unsolicited and they were reinforced by hundreds of others that were asked over the telephone. Volunteers were seated before telephone instruments, each with a list of names. All they asked the person called was, "Will you help build the fence," and seldom did they have to explain what that meant.

Here the combination of the odd and the pathetic were skill-

fully combined, the one to attract public attention, the other to compel assistance.

The trained user of publicity is no haphazard worker. He knows that human nature will respond as surely to certain influences as will the needle to the magnet. Psychology is coming to have its principles and axioms as fully recognized as any other of the sciences and the elemental qualities of human nature remain constant.

The advertisement writer utilizes this knowledge. So well agreed as to methods are the best and most successful men of this profession that what they would advise becomes almost monotonous in its repetition. The variety in their methods lies almost wholly in their way of attracting the attention of the indifferent. Once the attention is attracted, the presentation of the subject follows along almost identical lines.

As examples of kinds of publicity, let me read two clippings from a Washington newspaper. The first is a typical report from the Associated Charities and runs thus:

$500 IN ONE LUMP AIDS CHARITIES FUND

Five hundred dollars, the largest single contribution received this season, has been given to the joint finance committee by a Washingtonian, who does not wish his name announced.

He asks that $250 of his gift be assigned to the Associated Charities, $150 to the Citizens' Relief Association, and $100 to the committee on prevention of consumption. Cuno H. Rudolph, chairman of the joint finance committee, expresses himself as especially pleased and encouraged by this generous subscription. He says he hopes that others will be led to follow the example set by this contributor.

"While small as well as large contributions are appreciated," said Mr. Rudolph, "we need a number of gifts of good size as a backbone for our fund. Without a number of large contributions we shall hardly be able to sustain the work this season."

The next is a newspaper reporter's idea of the kind of story that ought to interest his readers and at the same time stir their sympathies to active response. It reads:

FAMILY IN DIRE WANT, HUSBAND IN WORKHOUSE; WOMAN TELLS HER STORY

A woman and her two children are slowly dying in Georgetown, while her husband lies in the workhouse for drunkenness, and his relatives, who are well to do, refuse to relieve the mother and children's destitution and starvation by so much as 5 cents worth of food.

The Associated Charities is keeping the trio alive with little gifts of food and fuel. The problem of what to do with the case came up before the Georgetown district of the Associated Charities,

and even these experienced workers among the poor could offer no solution for a case where children starved while their father's people lived in plenty.

AGENT VISITS FAMILY

The charities' agent visited the woman to-day and asked her what she would like to do. She looked around the miserable room in which she and her two emaciated little daughters are dragging out an existence. Her eyes were dry, as if she had long ago learned the futility of tears.

"I don't know what to do," she said, sadly. "What can I do? I have no money, not even any food. I can get nothing to do, for I cannot leave the children here by themselves, and I cannot take them with me. People won't let me."

She paused a moment.

CHILDREN HUNGRY

"They're very hungry this morning," she said. "I was up with the little one nearly all night. If I had some milk for her it would be very nice. I will work to pay you back when I am able. But, you see, I am sick myself. But I will work; indeed, I will."

The agent promised the milk and some other little necessities. The woman sat silent for a long time.

"He will be back in a few weeks," she said, "back from the workhouse, and he will make it so much harder. He is a good worker when he wants to be, but he drinks all the time. The last time he was released he was arrested within half a day, as drunk as you could imagine. Oh, it's a hard fight, very hard."

The agent stood silent, wondering at the courage of the poor, and suggested:

"We might be able to put the children in some home so that you could have time to get on your feet, find something to do and make yourself independent. You could leave him then."

"Yes," she said, "I think I would leave him. I've said all this time I would not leave him, but I must, I suppose. It doesn't do any good to have him come back here and add to our misery. Why, if it hadn't been for the Associated Charities the little girls and I would be dead now."

She sobbed for the first time, remembering that she would have to give up her children for a little while. She is a woman on whose face suffering and famine have written themselves large. One of her neighbors said she was beautiful once. Whatever beauty she had has been sacrificed long ago. Her hair, scant and short, is a stranger to hairpins or any sort of fastening. Her misery is lamentable.

The Associated Charities is trying to get the money necessary for the expenses of putting the children in a home and giving the mother clothes that will make her presentable and enable her to look for work. In the meantime her suffering is being assuaged by the Citizens' Relief Association.

Now the average newspaper editor is very much like the guide on the sightseeing wagon. He wants to print things to which his readers respond, the things that they will read with avidity. He finds a half dozen news stories a day of real intrinsic importance. He finds of local happenings twice as many things

that he must print as a record of the day in the city. But beyond this he chooses practically all his news because it is either big, odd, humorous, dramatic, romantic or pathetic.

How the newspaper word "story" originated, I do not know, but we can readily believe that it came from the unceasing demand in the newspaper office for news items and articles that have the elements of dramatic narration. In newspaper parlance, almost everything in the paper except the editorials is a story, and what the city editor would call a "good story" may be an heroic rescue, a mysterious murder, a society divorce case or an instance of self-sacrifice and suffering. His language is usually more calloused than his feelings, though his constant touch with human nature is too apt to make him suspicious and cynical.

So well recognized is it that the public seeks stories of pathos that one very prominent New York newspaper manager, a few years ago, gave orders that each day's issue must have at least one local story of self-sacrificing suffering and that the tone of the paper must be kept always sympathetic and philanthropic.

Some of those engaged in the Associated Charities work have told me that publicity work of the kind that I have outlined is impossible because they must protect the identity of their people as sacredly as the physician protects the secrets of his patients. I have never felt that this condition was difficult of solution. It is true that the newspaper must have names in its stories so that the reader may feel that they are genuine, but assumed names will do.

You have the material for effective publicity. The editor would be strange indeed who did not welcome, because of his own selfish interests, such human stories as the Associated Charities can give him, and that community would be strange indeed which, reading cases so presented, with the men and women living for them, did not respond with personal and material help.

No less a task than that of bringing cheer and courage and practical help to the needy is that of so building public opinion that a test of good citizenship shall be an active and earnest interest in the welfare of one's less strong and less fortunate fellows.

PUBLICITY FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF A SOCIAL WORKER

BY CHARLES F. WELLER, GENERAL SECRETARY, ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF WASHINGTON, D. C.

I believe we all feel grateful to Mr. Shaw and Mr. Steele for challenging our attention and for leading us to ask ourselves as to our methods of publicity. We speak of our work in each of our communities as being educational. We realize that we are undertaking to develop on the part of the general community, an appreciation of conditions among needy families, and an appreciation of the best way of dealing with these conditions. And yet we reach effectively and enlist as subscribers, perhaps only one in a hundred of the population of our community. We enlist as actual workers a much smaller proportion. The thing that appealed to us when Mr. Shaw read his paper was the element of circulation. We cannot get a very large circulation with postage stamps, nor in our reports. But here is an established medium, the public press, with a circulation of hundreds of thousands. We are struck at once by the fact that it would be obviously worth while if we could devise an acceptable method of using that established circulation, rather than trying, through our local publications and through printed matter and with postage stamps, to develop our own circulation, which is generally among people already interested. Mr. Shaw has held up before us two general appeals, first the story of the news account. We have been sending out from the Associated Charities at Washington an average of one such story daily, giving a list of contributors, a little appeal, some new outline of work that is being discussed, and perhaps, occasionally, the number of the needy families dealt with, and their types. I suppose you agree that that sort of publicity is worth something. But the significant thing in Mr. Shaw's paper is that he tells us that that does not amount to much. It perpetuates the name of the Associated Charities, but does not lay hold and gain attention. The work should be more concrete and give a human story.

First of all I desire to say I always wince when I hear that

story that he read. I noticed the faces of some of the other charity workers, and I perceived that they were either wincing or smiling. Why did we wince at that story? I think it is because it was overdrawn. The woman was not dying or starving, but she had been for a long time underfed. Another thing that we resent in that story is that it holds up as the one great question the material relief, without suggesting a spiritual struggle and a character question. We all feel a natural wincing at such a presentation of our problems. But this is hopeful, that Mr. Shaw assured me last night that even the incident of that story could have been made true, it could have been toned down on the side of starvation and toned up on the side of character, by bringing out the fact that the woman has repeatedly refused alms and insists upon working for what she gets, even when she is not strong enough. There is an older girl along the side of the employment question, and an effort should be made along the side of reforming this man. The reporter might still have written a convincing story, and one that we shouldn't wince at. Can we go into this concrete side for publicity? Looking at that development in Washington, and asking myself why in the last six years the general budget, for which the General Secretary has a responsibility, should grow from ten thousand to fifty thousand, for all the related funds, I am impressed under Mr. Shaw's suggestion with the idea that the concrete has had a great deal to do with it. One of the newspaper editors was won from unfriendliness to friendliness through the summer outings. Many have been won by the tuberculosis campaign. They have had consumptives in their own family, perhaps. Some have been won by the housing campaign; and none have been so firmly won as those who have been taken to some other neighborhood. It has been the concrete story again and again, so I suspect Mr. Shaw is talking very much to the point when he tells you that the thing that counts is that which makes a picture. This wincing story that he read had an interesting result, which again bears out somewhat his statement. Among the six telephone messages I received within twelve hours after the appearance of the story, I remember two or three distinctly. One was from a business man who, when the agent called upon him, was very ready to take an intelligent interest in that family.

Another was from a woman employed in one of the public departments. She called me because she said she was left with children on her hands years ago; that she had raised them herself, and was anxious to do something to enable that woman to keep her children. Another person called up, and hesitated to give her name and address. I said, "I'll have Miss ——— call on you." She said, "I am afraid Miss ——— wouldn't care to call on me in my home, for I live in a house of ill-repute." May be that was tainted money, but the thirty dollars she sent seemed to me very acceptable.

Six or seven years ago we started a neighborhood house in Washington. A good newspaper wanting to do us a friendly turn wrote a more or less interesting article, with pictures, detailing a day with the secretary of the Associated Charities. The article was comparatively harmless, but the title was changed to read "A Day in the Slums with"—so and so. Our neighbors haven't forgotten that story to this day, and on top of that story during the few succeeding months there were similar cases where newspapers, desiring to show what great good we were doing to those people, would publish articles showing very clearly how much they were of the opposite class. Of course, this was resented. When you live in a settlement you begin to appreciate the dangers of publicity. We have to make a contract with the city editor that he will never use such words as "charity," "poor," "slums," etc.

But recently we have sought publicity, and we haven't had one unpleasant result from it because we have the newspapers educated to leave those words out, and to report things that the whole city is doing together, not what one neighborhood is doing. It is necessary to educate the community to the right view of our situation, and to devote a definite amount of our energy to publicity, either by the secretary or other agent submitting items, or a reporter may be subsidized, paid three or four dollars per column for the matter which is printed, or for preparing the matter. It seems to me some such program can be worked out, and we have made a beginning in a good many places through our appeals—for instance, the story of a seamstress who has tuberculosis, and whom we desire to put in a sanitarium; or a crippled boy whom we desire to have straightened, or a case

where patent limbs are needed. I feel that as a result of Mr. Shaw's paper we shall endeavor to procure more effective publicity, and to use what he suggests—the more concrete, the more human story; as Miss Jane Addams or Miss Richmond would express it, the human vision.

PUBLICITY IN CHARITABLE WORK IN SMALLER CITIES

BY A. W. McDOUGALL, SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF NEWARK, N. J.

CITIES

The question naturally arises how does publicity work in smaller cities differ from that in larger cities? Is not the problem the same whatever the size of the community? There is possibly this difference in practice, that in smaller cities the field is more limited and therefore possibly more easily covered; there are fewer societies to catch the attention of the public and fewer newspapers to be interested and handled.

Possibly, too, there is a further difference. Granted that publicity is to be made a separate and distinct department of a society's work, there are practical difficulties in specializing in a smaller city. Whereas, in the large city a society can afford to equip a separate department, this may not be possible in a smaller city. Whether it is possible, for instance, in a small city to employ a Publicity Secretary, and just how large a city must be, to justify it, are questions of practical administration.

What is the purpose of publicity in charity work? What are we seeking, and how does it square with the ideals of the charitable society? There are two objects to be accomplished by it, it seems to me, separate in statement but one in practice:

First, to gain financial support to carry on the work.

Second, to interest and inform the public.

Money! Education!

MONEY

One of the sadly present and ever pressing problems of our

work is that of means. It is a fact that our organizations are hampered and crippled and that our best plans fail of accomplishment because of lack of means. We are constantly compromising, falling short of our ideals for this reason. Take any of the practical questions of daily administration: The equipment of our offices in a way to enable us to properly do our work; the questions of sufficient office space, of properly lighted and properly ventilated rooms—cheery and bright surroundings in which to receive applicants; in a word, the physical requisites for living up to the theory of our work. The question of properly written up and intelligible records; the recording of daily experiences and the question of providing time to examine and to generalize from them—to profit by mistakes and failures. The constant waste of experience going on. We are daily wasting, too, the nervous force of our workers—dulling our keen-edged tools, because of crude and ill-adapted means.

How can charitable societies perform their tasks in a workmanlike and efficient manner when the necessary means are wanting? The quality and the efficiency of the working force of organized charity is at the mercy of money-income. To gain money support then is a legitimate object of publicity work. What does publicity work mean?

Put in the briefest way, publicity work is that by which a society interprets itself to its public. In a broader sense it is interpreting a city to itself. Destitution and suffering exist in our cities. There is unemployment, badly adjusted industrial machinery, inefficiency, improvidence. There are wrong conditions needing righting, instances of injustice, abuse of power, improper and unfair physical environment under which people are living. These conditions call for human interest, sympathetic thought, and for action.

There are hundreds of individuals in the same cities who have means, strength, leisure; who have a sense of justice and right, who want to be humane and helpful to others. The charitable society is a medium through which they may act. It is publicity work that is to bring to their attention the conditions mentioned.

Publicity work, I take it, means to get the facts before the public, to win a hearing and to make the society a medium of

action for just as large a part of the public as it can get to understand its work and accept its program.

EDUCATION

This leads to the proposition that publicity work is a means not merely of getting money for the support of a society, but of informing, of educating the public.

I realize that there is a phase of this desire to make one's work popular that implies a retreat from the highest purposes of organized charity; an apparent abandoning of the original heroic quality that led charity organization societies to welcome the opportunity to fight out their battles in each community by standing against the cheapening tendencies of sentimental charity.

There is always the danger of failing to sufficiently accent the difference between charity that means character, and the popular meaning of the word that makes of charity a type of communism, a sharing of material things regardless of the fact that character and moral fibre are only gotten through self-support, self-help.

On the other hand, it seems to me we must avoid limiting our charity to the intellectual type, making it represent an aristocracy of ideals estranged from the unintellectual but humane and kindly people, who are in the majority in our cities. It is surely possible to interpret the practical and common sense doctrines of charity organization to a greater body of people because many such practice them in their own daily living.

Is it not true that the man who will criticise a charity organization society as to relief-giving, thinking it lacking in heart, if faced with the facts in a specific case, will take the same attitude as does the society. He knows that he has made a success of his own life by adhering to just such standards.

If we can interpret the principles of our work to the good citizen, whether he be the wealthy man with bank account or the little man of small means, our society will gain greatly.

Is there any reason why there should not be a gradual increase of the number supporting our charities, a democratization of our charity?

A PROGRAM OF WORK

The following plan of work was mapped out at the beginning of last fall in Newark for meeting the urgent needs of funds:

1. Personal work and active influence of the members of the Board of Directors in securing new contributors and the increasing to adequate amounts the contributions of old contributors.
2. Active campaign by Financial Secretary.
3. Letters of appeal sent through the mail.
4. Ministers throughout the city to be asked to deliver sermons either directly about the work of the Bureau or with reference to the principles underlying the work.
5. The employment of a Publicity Secretary and publicity through the newspapers.

THE NEWSPAPER

The medium of first importance in publicity work is the newspaper. It is the one printed thing that every one reads. It is the one universal source of information and of education of the public. It is the royal road by which to reach the public. At the same time, it has been the source of greatest harm to organized charity.

What our societies need to do is to get into the daily press the whole story of their work—to put it before the public in all its phases so that the public will understand what it is really trying to do.

Our work suffers as a result of the crude and incomplete stories written for the daily papers by reporters uninformed as to the real purpose of the work, with no background of information, with no equipment.

Can we not get our newspapers to recognize the importance of social work, not for exploitation as "news" matter and sensationalism, but as of dignified and serious interest to a very large body of readers in every city?

The well-equipped modern newspaper has its specialized departments with reporters equipped along special lines. Is it not reasonable to ask a newspaper to qualify a reporter or reporters for this work, to dignify it by only assigning men to do the work who are informed along these lines?

The following is a program mapped out for the Newark Bureau:

1. A series on Charitable Procedure for Newark Evening News if it will accept it. To be similar to educational series on Citizenship and Govern-

mental topics, which have appeared as a feature in the News during past year. To show the importance of charity in the civic life; its relation, when properly administered, to the whole economic situation; also its ethical aspect, etc. To be general in scope but applied to Newark, and focused on the Bureau of Charities. If this series were admissible it might constitute the strictly educational part of the campaign; the rest to consist of articles of an exploitative nature.

2. A general article on the Bureau, based on its new statistics. A description of all its departments and side issues (such as work-room, provident savings, etc.), the whole to be treated from a non-technical viewpoint. To give also, if possible, an intimate idea of the daily routine of business. To include account of its historical development.

3. Separate article on trained workers. How they are trained, and to what degree. The need of high grade workers for the sake of the poor. Danger of leaving the destinies of a family in the hands of an untrained or untactful, or unwise agent. Some typical experiences. Their ideal—to restore the family to self-support.

4. The want of money in charitable enterprise as applied to Bureau. Money floated per year in other enterprises. Comparison of a prosperous man's outlay respectively for charity and cigars, etc. Comparison of a well-to-do woman's charitable expenditure with her millinery bills, etc. How much Newark spends on the theatre (if the statistics are forthcoming), how much on automobiles, private parties, balls, etc., and how much on charity. What the city spends on charity (involving explanation of the inadequacy of thirty-five cents worth of bread per week for a family of ten, or a dollar per month for the same sized family). Amount of money made accessible to the Bureau of Associated Charities with comparisons of towns of better record, such as Cleveland, etc.

5. "Friends in Need"; the friendly visitors. Descriptive of their aims, ideals and accomplishment, to include specific instances of friendly visits made.

6. The Bank of the Poor; the Penny Provident Savings. Instances of amounts saved, and for what purpose saved. Compare with some millionaire statistics, and describe the "run on the bank" which the coming winter created.

7. The Visiting Housekeeper. The story of a day with her. The educative side of her work. Instances of reform accomplished, etc.

8. Some Famous Frauds; heroes of the rogues' gallery that have figured in Newark's past, and duped worthy householders—how the Bureau protects the city from such imposters.

9. Somewhat similar kind of article on Pests—Beggars of Foreign Cities. The part of the Bureau in maintaining Newark free from such disturbers.

10. The Bureau as an information center. Social findings collected there, dealings with conditions in the city itself, such as the various quarters where specific conditions or nationalities exist. Also general statistics as to poverty, crime, etc., that have been gathered.

11. The Problem of the Unemployed, as the Bureau finds it, combined with industrial statistics of Newark, giving cases, etc. Include account of wood yard.

12. The Bureau as a Pioneer of Progress among other Charitable Ventures in the City. Its inter-relationship with certain other societies and the character of its co-operation with them.

13. The Women's Work-room—what is done, etc. Lunch Hour. The Rummage Sale.

14. The Care of Children in Newark. Joint Committee, etc.

15. The Charities Endorsement Committee, the "Social Bradstreet." What it is, and what it has accomplished.

DISCUSSION

THE CHAIRMAN: The problems are not so widely different after all in the larger and smaller cities until we get down to the rural community. I will ask Mr. Kellogg, of "Charities and the Commons," to speak on that phase of the subject.

MR. KELLOGG: "Charities and the Commons" is not for the purpose of raising money nor for the advertising of any specific organization. It is to make known as widely as possible the facts of social difficulties and generally accepted remedies. We have many articles that have an interest for the general public and are copied by newspapers and magazines. We have sent these out now and then to the newspapers, and now and then we send an article accompanied by a letter to the editor, giving a little story about the writer of the article, or some side-light upon it.

There are certain papers that never take these articles. There are some papers that use them and apply them to local conditions.

There is another feature of the service that we are trying to push now, and that is to help special local campaigns. We hear, for instance, of a city on the Pacific Coast which is planning a municipal dock. We are ready to furnish that local paper with a full page story with illustrations of the recreation piers in New York. We are told it will have some effect in putting through the project.

One other example of the work done—some four hundred county jails have been reported on, and Professor Henderson, of Chicago University, wrote a report, laying out plans for a model jail. To it was added a local story for the newspapers in every county in which the jail was investigated, and only one of these has not been published. In that one the editor told us that after the investigation was made the jail was torn down and a new one built.

We are also doing good work in educating the editors and reporters. We have found that one editor is ready to serve us in the far west, although his people are not ready for the kind of stories we are sending. We think, too, if we send out an article on child labor to one hundred and twenty-five papers, the men who are engaged in social work will, when the matter comes up in legislatures or council meetings, have a better understanding of the operation of the laws that have been established in other states.

There is a future development in the line of magazine articles which are not so technical as those published in "Charities and the Commons." There was in the "World's Work" last winter an article on Charity Organizations for Twenty-five Years.

THE CHAIRMAN: One instance which Mr. Kellogg was too modest to tell in relation to "Charities and the Commons" is that in a city farthest west an editor had received a copy of one of the stories sent out by "Charities and the Commons." After reading it he turned it over to the compositors to work on it before he discovered the last page was missing, and he wired to Mr. Kellogg to send him by wire that last page of the story.

MR. LIES, of Minnesota: It seems to me it is worth while knowing that this committee is rendering a great service to the cause of charity in general, and the conference in particular. I wonder if Mr. Steele wouldn't give us an outline in five minutes of how the news of the conference is being sent broadcast through the Associated Press by this Publicity Committee.

THE CHAIRMAN: Some years ago an attempt was made within the machinery of the National Conference to secure a widespread publicity for the proceedings of the sessions of the conference. Last year it seemed to some of us, and the Executive Committee agreed, that it might be possible to evolve a plan whereby discussions occurring in the conference might reach the largest possible public. Feeling our way carefully, we tried to secure copies of

papers to be read at the conference, or abstracts of the copies, from the writers or speakers themselves. Last year we secured forty out of possibly fifty papers, in advance. They were sent to the General Secretary. I abstracted them and sent abstracts to Mr. Kellogg in New York and had them set into type and put in a galley-proof—as we call it—and some three hundred and fifty copies were mailed out to the newspapers on the mailing list of "Charities and the Commons." Just what the result was we never knew. We didn't have an efficiently equipped service. We found them liberally used in some cities, and not at all in others.

As a result of that work, the Committee on Press and Publicity was created last year, and I was asked to try and do something of that kind or better. This year, in sending out requests for papers and addresses, the result was discouraging. Most of the speakers and writers said they could not possibly get the copy in early, if at all. Many said they didn't expect to prepare copies, they expected to speak extemporaneously. So about two weeks prior to the opening day of this conference I had in hand just ten addresses or abstracts. But feeling that perhaps more would come, these abstracts were boiled down and set into type. The chairman of the committee went to Washington, which is the distributing point for news in the south. Mr. Hood, of the Associated Press, who is the southern manager, said the Associated Press would be very glad to handle this matter, and sent it to all of the nine hundred and fifty papers embraced in that service. The last one went out seven days before it would actually occur. That would reach the Pacific Coast in five and a half or six days and give the printer time to get it printed before its release. These articles are all held for release. No address may be used by a newspaper publisher until it has been given. The Associated Press representative here, when an address is given, will notify Washington by wire to release so and so with reference to the National Conference, and that word is flashed to all the papers of the afternoon service, and sent at night to the morning papers. The editor may have the copy set in type when the machines otherwise would be idle, but it may not go into print until the release order comes from Washington. That, in a word, is the scheme as it is being worked out this year. The Washington papers are using it, and I believe some western papers must be using it, for I had a letter from Indiana this morning which indicates that fact.

Insane and Epileptic

REPORT OF COMMITTEE

BY DR. J. T. SEARCY, TUSCALOOSA, ALA., CHAIRMAN

HEREDITY

AN ALLEGORY

There is said to have been a town, which was called a progressive, an up-to-date town, within whose limits there was a bluff or precipice, over which a great number of the inhabitants were continually falling.

There grew up gradually a number of persons in the town, called physicians, who, assisted by nurses and others, made it their life-work to aid the unfortunates who fell over the bluff. It was singular how many other kinds of persons became interested in and derived a living from these misfortunes of their fellow-citizens; for instance, there were undertakers, grave-diggers, coffin-makers, sextons, and the like. The people, through sympathy, built great hospitals, and ran ambulances to gather up the unfortunates. Hospitals for the insane, colonies for the epileptics, schools for the feeble-minded, and reformatories for the wayward and inebriates, were built and equipped. Drug stores grew and flourished on the corners, immense factories for making remedies, also.

In many ways the town gained great reputation for its progress, its liberal contributions and its noble charities.

Finally one of the doctors looked up from his work and drew attention to the fact that it would be good policy to place a fence on the top of the bluff to prevent so many falling over.

At first he attracted little attention, but the strenuosity of his assertions finally drew some favorable comments. Numbers arose to oppose his suggestions, principally with the plea that

"the business interests" of the town would be impaired; some intimated, "the works of Providence" would be interfered with. Some of the other physicians were selfishly dilatory in helping, or indirectly opposed to the good doctor. The makers and venders of alcoholic drinks and of "dope" mixtures, many of the patent medicine men and food makers thought the fence would rule them out and opposed it; and so did the keepers of dives and places of low-repute. These formed strong combinations to prevent the erection of the fence.

Besides this, there seemed to be a great indifference on the part of the inhabitants to learn of those principles of heredity, which, as the city grew wealthy and civilized, pointed more and more to a steadily increasing hereditary inability of the people to stem the tides and currents, which drew them to the precipice. It became evident that lineal deterioration was a principal predisposing cause of the accidents. The back-country had to fill vacancies left by the wholesale elimination of city families. Deterioration even seemed to be in proportion to the apparent wealth and prosperity of the town. In many instances it looked as though it would be necessary to set the fence one, two or more generations back from the brow of the precipice.

Increased efforts, however, were made at the foot of the precipice; more money was spent and more applause was given to the charitable work that was rendered. A singular mock modesty and unnatural prudery prevailed and tabooed, as impolite and indecent, talks and instructions along lines of race deterioration and race improvement. Legal sensuality took position behind prudery and refused to be disturbed. The insidious silent agencies of lineal degeneracy had almost the whole field to themselves, unrecognized and unmolested.

Sometimes a fable, a parable or an allegory is an apt way to draw attention to a subject. I have used this allegory, in some shape, possibly familiar, to illustrate the subject of heredity, to the members of this conference, many of whom are doing such generous work at the foot of the precipice. It may serve to point them to the principal direction whence comes so much of the unceasingly accumulating material, on which they expend their labors.

I. DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION

Heredity is the transition of habits-of-action along lines-of-descent.

A line-of-descent is scientifically called a PHYLUM, and is the continuous living substance, which comes along time, through succeeding generations, acquiring habits of more or less excellence, adjusting itself to its changing environments. A complete continuity of living material composes the phylum. It is important and necessary to recognize the fact that there is no break in the living structural connectedness anywhere. A phylum, from this stand-point, may be studied as a whole and looked upon as a living entity of itself. The study of the phylum, as a living whole, constitutes the principal feature in modern science regarding living things.

The habits, with which the continuously connected phylum is endowed, present two features:—the one is structural or morphologic; the other is functional or physiologic. The phylum, as it passes through the stages of succeeding generations, has habits of assuming parts, organs, structures, forms, shapes, colors, which are peculiar to that phylum alone. This is its morphology. At the same time, the cellular structures and organs, which are assumed, all have functions peculiar to themselves, and, in the aggregate, peculiar to the individuals of the succeeding generations. This is its physiology. Morphology and physiology always correspond with each other, and belong not to individuals alone but to their phyla.

In non-sexed animals there is a single line-of-descent or phylum. In sexed animals, two phyla of two parents coalesce. Two genetic cells, one branched from each parent, when they coalesce, carry into the combination the habits of the multiple ancestral lines which compose them; as a rule, the latest lines being most potent and evident. The two parental phyla have to belong to the same species, that is, possess similar morphology and physiology, else their genetic cells cannot coalesce; nevertheless, in the multiplied ancestral combinations of the same species, there come along, necessarily, variations, which occasion, in their transitions, minor differences in the offspring of

the same parents. Normally, no two children are exactly alike, largely for this reason.

Normal variability is a property of the phyla, and is a characteristic of all living things. Ability to vary, to suit changing environments, is a necessity for living continuance. Living continuance, in changing environments of succeeding generations, is the object of effort on the part of every living thing. Many are eliminated because they do not properly adjust. There are, therefore, naturally and expectedly from their complex compositions, and their adjustments, some minor variations in the offspring of the same parents.

In the vicissitudes and competitions of life, the general tendency of the agencies which compose the environment, is to eliminate phyla. The only way for phyla to prevent it is to make continual effort through generations to adjust, which modifies their morphology and physiology slowly. For this reason, effort, and effort alone, in the way of profitable exercise, makes strength and improvement of morphology and gives capacity and ability of physiology. There is no stand-still level of rest and idleness as long as environments change. A cessation of effort, in the length of a single generation or of several, begets a decline of psychic abilities. This causes a constant rising and falling of the capacities of individuals, families and races. Necessity to live is the mother of effort and of improvement. When and where there is no necessity, effort generally stops and deterioration of ability sets in.

The four things, air or oxygen, water, warmth and food, are "the necessaries-of-life." Every cell in the body has to have these things constantly provided for it, or it cannot live. The same general necessity exists for the whole man. The first object of effort of every living thing, man included, is to obtain these necessaries from its environment. Air and water are so abundant, little effort is required to obtain them. Warmth, in the shape of clothing, housing, artificial heat, and some kinds of food, is harder for man to obtain—costs more. Nutritive food is by far the hardest to obtain; there has to be a daily supply of it; it costs more effort. The accumulation of wealth and property is really and fundamentally an accumulation of an excess of these necessaries of life, or of a means of obtaining them.

This makes the accumulation of wealth, property, or any negotiable article, like money, such an object of effort on the part of man. He has to "make a living," he calls it.

It is easy to divide the body, particularly the nervous system, into two important departments; the one relates to the outside, the other to the inside of the man. We may name one of them the psychic department; the other the sub-psychic.

The centre of the psychic department is the cerebrum or its cortex; the centre of the sub-psychic are tracts and regions in the base of the brain, the medulla, cord, and lower ganglions.

The primitive object of effort of the psychic department is to obtain the necessaries of life from the environment; that of the sub-psychic to prepare and distribute them throughout the body. The separateness of the departments is illustrated in sleep, in anesthesia, and in other unconscious conditions; when the functions of the psychic department are suspended and those of the sub-psychic continue to go on. The success of anesthesia consists in holding the chemic action of the ether at that point, and not giving enough to suspend the action of the sub-psychic centres. Although separate in larger part, these departments are connected by nerve lines so they are sympathetic the one with the other. Beneficent or satisfactory action in one affects the functions of the other favorably; and so are disturbing acts transmitted in injurious effect from one department to the other.

All nerve centers receive informing action into the sentient structures, from one direction, and emit in another the results of their adjustments, of which latter faculty there are all grades corresponding with the grades of the centres. The work of the sub-psychic department is sub-conscious, in equilibrating and adjusting the actions of the internal organs, which relate, principally, to the preparation and the distribution of the necessaries of life. I need not refer to other functions, such as those that relate to the removal of waste material, or the continuance of the phylum into the next generation. All functions are under nerve center control, in the sub-psychic department.

Belonging to the psychic department, on the one side of its central cerebrum, are the several organs, of seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling and other sensations, with afferent nerve lines

bearing information into its posterior tracts, while, not quite so distinctly located, are the tracts of the anterior portions, which send mandates to all the voluntary muscles along efferent lines. The voluntary muscles, which constitute a large part of the body, do duty on the emissive side in this department. The posterior tracts may be said to receive or learn through the senses, while the anterior ones emit or execute through the muscles the results of the adjusting ideation and reasoning that have gone on intermediately. The function of the cerebrum, which is conscious mentality, in this way, is tripartite in character; it receives, adjusts and emits, or using more complex terms, it learns, reasons, and executes.

The psychic department of the body is far the most important portion, and its morphology and physiology are as much matters of heredity, according to the transitions of phylal habits, as are those of the sub-psychic; with possibly more variations attached to them. In the transitions through the generations, the abilities of the psychic department are seen to vary greatly. It varies in its abilities—in its receiving sense organs, in its central cerebrum, and in its large bulk of voluntary muscles. In its nerve lines and brain centers, such is the exceptional delicacy of its structural morphology and its functional physiology, that liability to harm and injury is exceedingly easy and of most serious import. Its functions, too, improve and decline naturally and readily, in their capacities and abilities, in the life of the individual and the line of his generations. Normal phylal deterioration of psychic abilities is a matter of frequent observation; by which we mean certain children are not as mentally capable as their parents or their ancestry. In others we witness improvement of psychic abilities.

All the cases which flood the field of psychiatry, as mental deficients and defectives, are morbidites, or exhibitions of morphologic and physiologic abnormalities, of the psychic department, and deteriorating heredity accounts for a large proportion of them. A large part are the results of predispositions of phylal habits, and in that way are not acquired in the generation in which they appear. They may have remained latent and afterwards been brought out, one way or another.

II. IMPORTANCE OF THE SUBJECT

If we had an expert, whose opinions would be reliable, whom we could employ to grade the mental qualifications of the persons, who compose a family, a community, or a race, and have him place upon a black-board the figures representing his estimates, so that those of the same grades would fall in the same horizontal lines, I judge, we would see his black-board arrangements gradually assume a cone shape, a pear shape or a triangular shape; its outlines would not be strictly straight. We would see the figures of the more and most capable filling the space above the middle line in diminishing lengths to the apex; and the less and least capable in lengthening lines would occupy the lower portion of the triangle. Some diagrams, representing different aggregates of persons, would be higher; some lower; some wider; some narrower; and, I judge, if we made our estimates after intervals of time, we would see the contours of our diagrams constantly changing. The changes would occur because the inherited, phylal level of any one generation would be the most important factor in determining the grade reached; and this changes from time to time in the aggregate as well as in the single phyla.

We often hear it asserted that if all the young persons of a community were subjected to the same excellent environment of training and of education, they would make equally successful and ethical citizens. Environment-makers are usually loud in such assertions; they have the floor in public attention. Everywhere we witness that such assertions do not prove correct. There are great differences in the out-puts of the same environments. The best environments, containing the highest grades of training and education do not ensure uniformity; nor do the worst environments; and, I think, it is a correct observation, that the inherited traits and capacities of the young, and others, in acquiring knowledge and making use of it, and in appreciating and observing rules of rectitude and propriety, are larger factors in the final results, than the agencies to which they have been subjected. Of course, it is a great advantage to a person to have him placed in an environment where good training and education are abundantly administered to him, but his own inherited abilities to take advantage of his opportunities, to profit by his surroundings, are the most important elements in the grade of his success.

These cannot be imparted to him. Great irregularities appear everywhere in all circumstances of society, good and bad, because of irregularities in inherited traits and abilities. Great attention is properly given to making or improving the environment, but little or no attention is given to making or improving the inherited man—the more important factor of the two.

I have already alluded to the natural division of mentality into three parts:—that of learning, that of reasoning, and that of executing; which divisions are well suggested by the structural morphology of that whole department and by the localization of the cerebral functions, so far as they have been discovered. Men, and races so far as that goes, differ in their capacities in each of these departments. The simply erudite scholar, for instance, excels only in learning. The wise competent man is good in all three—he learns, he reasons, he executes excellently. The man, with common sense, learns, reasons, and executes in a profitable practical way. These traits are phylal; they cannot be imparted by the schools; they are inherently inborn.

III. NORMAL PSYCHIC HEREDITY

I have said that the contours of the triangular diagrams, representing the psychic abilities of different races of men, would be found to alter themselves from time to time. The variations in the phylal psychic abilities of races explain a great deal of history. True histories of people will be written some day, showing the reasons for the risings and fallings of their psychic barometers at different times, and citing these levels to show the reasons for their successes and failures in different periods of their histories.

In the earliest history of the world there lived in Assyria, in western Asia, a people, who at that time were probably the most civilized in the world. Somewhat later there was another center of civilization in the valley of the Nile. About this time, there arose in central Europe a high order of men, who were capable, digressive and progressive, although rude and crude. Some of them went into Asia; others of them came south into the peninsulas of Greece and Italy. The Greeks were nearest to the advanced centers of the day and first appropriated their civiliza-

tion; they in time deteriorated by natural processes, and were overrun by the competition of others. The Romans next took the field, conquered the world, and civilized to the highest degree by their inherent abilities from what they acquired; in time, their phylal abilities deteriorated, when the Goths and Vandals poured over the mountains and submerged them. Some Moors and Jews came along the north coast of Africa, and in Spain, with Cordova as their capital, kept alive the light of civilization during the dark ages. They took their turn in the same processes of deterioration. All the obtainable histories of the countries of Europe and Asia furnish illustrations of these same principles. The Africans, especially the Ethiopians, from the remotest antiquity, have had the civilizations of more advanced countries of Asia and Europe and Egypt accessible to them, along the valley of the Nile and down both coasts, but have never been able to appreciate or appropriate them. The Islands of the Pacific are apt illustrations of races civilizing to the different levels of their psychic abilities. European civilization has been presented to them in very much the same way and at about the same time. They have accepted it and now maintain it at their different psychic levels. The Japanese show their high grade by the readiness and the alertness with which they have appropriated the civilization of Europe.

Races and nations civilize, individuals train and educate, in accordance with the same general principles. The grade of their phylal abilities, coming along to them in any one generation from the preceding, is the most important factor in determining the levels they reach; and these qualifications change from time to time. Abilities improve and decline. All histories, individual and racial, go to show the importance of the subject of heredity. No subject is more worthy of investigation, and the hereditary transition of improving and of declining phylal abilities of the psychic department, in particular, is the most important part of it all.

IV. ABNORMAL PSYCHIC HEREDITY

I have been speaking of normal differences of psychic abilities in individuals and in the lines of their phyla. By normal mental differences I mean those that are natural, usual, customary, ex-

pected; but there are aberrances that are quickly noted as unnatural, unusual, unexpected, abnormal. There are many kinds of them and all grades of each kind. They promptly attract attention and concern.

The functions, as I say, of the psychic department of a man relate to the outside of him, to his environment. The emissions, that are sent out from his brain are, therefore, open to outside inspection. Others observe them and judge them. We have to have an expert to tell us of the condition and capacity of a man's heart, lungs, liver, kidneys or stomach, but everybody claims to be a judge of his brain's condition and capacity. To judge others in these particulars is a constant habit of us all. Every man claims to be a judge of the mental and moral qualifications of others, and prides himself on the correctness of his opinions—on being a good judge of human nature. This is a necessary habit, so necessary it has become an instinct—children do it. It is vitally important for us to know the mental qualifications of those with whom we are associated.

When the exhibitions of a man's mental characteristics are such as are natural, usual, customary, expected, we say he has a normal brain; when they vary from these characteristics, we say he has an abnormal brain. The normal exhibitions of a man's mentality are constant matters of observation, study, and opinion; but abnormal exhibitions promptly become matters of greater interest; they most generally become matters of concern. Not only are his own safety and welfare affected by such exhibitions; but the safety, comfort or welfare of ourselves and others often become involved. Mental abnormalities are promptly noted and mentioned.

We obtain our opinion of others not only from our own observations, but there is constant exchange of opinions going on among us; and a person is always interested in the exchanged opinions of others about himself. He is concerned about the reputation he bears. He resists with jealous zeal all derogatory opinions about himself. Indeed, opposition to derogatory opinions is so positive and decided, that it forces them often into an under-current of social exchange; and they are so opposed, that the state has had to reserve to itself the right to declare when the man has reached such a grade of mental disqualification as to re-

quire legal attention and interference. This leads us readily to an understanding of what such legal terms as insanity, idiocy, non-compos, lunacy and the like, mean; they refer to such grades of mental abnormalities as bring them within the cognizance and jurisdiction of the law; which, at once, implies there are milder grades which do not deserve such appellations or such attention. These attract common attention, however, and although the persons affected claim legally to be normal, they are known not to be normal. The technical term, PSYCHOSIS, has been recently invented to cover all grades of mental abnormalities.

It is easy to understand how psychoses appear, most readily, in those phyla, whose psychic departments are deteriorating in the tone of their morphology and physiology. In this way such abnormalities are often looked upon as hereditary. Faultiness of structure and function, anywhere, is most easy to appear in deteriorating lines. Accidents, injuries or diseases of the psychic cerebrum can happen to the excellent, but they occur most often and most readily to the deteriorating. They may be so often repeated as to become a matter of phylal transition. A deterioration of general health, in a person and his posterity, tends to bring out any inherited, deficient or defective morphology and physiology in his brain, as well as other organs. So-called stigmata of degeneracy, of all kinds, indicate a generally lineal tendency to defectiveness, which may involve the brain. In this way deteriorating heredity affects the whole field of psychiatry.

The question of "public health" is a most vital one, for many reasons. Whatever conditions tend to deteriorate general health, let down the cerebral abilities along with the rest. The committee of one hundred on public health, recently organized in this country, have in hand a question that affects as much as anything else the nation's life and prosperity. It is a vital subject on which to give public instruction and to which to draw the attention of the general government. Public health and public psychic capacity largely run together.

A large proportion, the majority of mental aberrances, can be looked upon as lateral accidents along the lines of phylal deterioration. They exist most numerously in those sections and

in those classes where most phylal deterioration is going on. Normal down-grade heredity and impaired psychic heredity affect every public charitable question. Up-grade heredity, or improved, normal, psychic heredity, interests every lover of his race.

V. DEGENERACY

It is a fact not often noticed, that most of the phyla, that succeed in being born into any one generation, do not go through it into the next. They are, therefore, eliminated. The principal cause of this is phylal deterioration, which incapacitates them from continuing themselves in the midst of the dangers, diseases, accidents, competitions and vicissitudes of life. Most of the children that are born die early; many others die before they reach adult life; and many adults for many reasons, fail to continue themselves. If we allow six children to the mother, a very fair number, it would increase the adult population three-fold in each generation, if all lived to adult life. Excess of population indicates its own remedy.

The object of effort, on the part of the psychic department, is to obtain the necessaries-of-life from the environment; the next most urgent object is to continue the phylum into the next generation, for which there is an appetite or hunger almost as impelling as those for the other necessities. It is necessary for phylal continuance, and must be reckoned with and considered in all social work.

The cares of the mother, continuing as they do, not only through the helpless part of the youngest child's life, but through the growing lives of several, confine her to one locality and more closely to that division of parental labor than they do the father. He is at large, to do competitive and digressive work. The mother's psychic department by reason of her sex, is specialized for maternal work, and, when naturally occupied, she has neither the time nor the qualifications for obtaining, from among the competitions of her environment, the necessaries of life for herself and her children. They ought to be provided for her. The psychic department of the father, as a concomitant of his sex, is more specialized for combative, competitive, aggressive, digressive, work. He ought to provide for his family. In this

way, there are mental characteristics peculiar to the sexes—the woman conservative, the man digressive. Every complete woman has the maternal instinct in her; if she have no children of her own, her instincts reach out to the children of others. Child-saving is a natural and favorite work for the altruistic woman.

In education of the young, training and instruction should follow the indications of nature. When the children are young and alike, the same methods and subjects of instruction can properly be pursued, but when the adolescents put on their sex changes, subjects and methods of education should diverge. Whatever education is given—for the good of the race—each should be especially trained and directly instructed for its phylal specialty. No instruction appears, as a rule, in the curricula of schools, relating to phylal continuance.

Those races do best by whom these mental characteristics of the sexes are most respected. They are strongly involved in the principles of monogamous matrimony. By this social method phylal capacities are best improved. The conservation of .the family, always judged a most desirable social object, is, of course, best obtained by strict compliance with monogamic principles. Father and mother should jointly devote themselves to their children. With a strong instinctive sense for the safety and maintenance of themselves and their children, the mothers of the land are always the most strenuous advocates for the principles of monogamy. The best phylal interests of any family, any community, or any race are strongly concerned in their observance. A laxness in adhering to them tends towards and indicates a decline in phylal abilities and qualifications. Race improvement and race deterioration run along with those of the families of the country. The ideal family, commendably mentioned, to render it ideal, has in it parents with high all-round psychic abilities, as well as children. Such parents occupy levels above the middle line in the race's diagram and, for the good of the race, should be the ones to continue themselves. Usually "race-suicide" begins in these levels. Diminishing frequency of such families forebodes a decline of the race.

As I have described them, the objects of effort on the part of the psychic department, first relate to obtaining the necessaries of life from the environment; next, to continuing the

phylum into the next generation. Another object is, to improve self-abilities, so as to render one most capable of success in the adverse circumstances of life. An educational environment is, therefore, good. Psychic abilities, to acquire and learn, first appear in the child and they mature faster than reasoning or execution. We take advantage of this and use the first third of the person's life for teaching and training. By practice, we do, to some extent, improve his inherited psychic abilities—particularly in learning. Teaching has little effect upon reasoning or executive abilities, they are hereditary—out of reach of the teacher.

Another object of psychic effort is to improve the environment. This is by far the most complex; and as the efforts to improve the environment become further and further removed from self and include others in their scope, they become more and more altruistic and more and more complicated. The complexity of this kind of work requires the highest order of psychic abilities. Qualifications for this work are naturally estimated and valued highest. Altruism, including all efforts to improve society, is difficult and delicate work. To direct the social improvement of the family, of the race, or of humanity, requires the highest, broadest, unselfish, psychic abilities. Races differ in their appreciations of this kind of qualifications. The science of sociology rests upon it; and so do law, morals and government. The psychic phylal grade of the race determines the level reached.

It is easy to see that in the transitions, through generations, of phylal morphology and physiology, those of the sub-psychic department are naturally more stable, less variable, than those of the psychic. The most variable part of the man, in his phylal transitions, are his psychic qualifications; consequently, this part of his heredity deserves the most study and attention. Every public-spirited person, every environment maker, should be interested in the improvement of the psychic abilities of the phyla of the individuals, who occupy his country and compose his race. The generations to follow deserve attention for the race's success and safety.

VI. IMPROVEMENT

Race improvement is the earnest desire of every public-spirited

person, or should be. To simply improve the environment, within a country, does good, but only partial good to phyla. No special attention is usually paid to phylal improvement. I have already intimated that if the figures, representing the mental capabilities of the members of a race, were placed upon a blackboard, the arrangement would assume a triangular or pear shape, widening out with the greater numbers of the less and least capable towards the base and narrowing with the fewer more and most capable to its apex. The contour of such a figure would alter from time to time. Race improvement would increase the numbers above the middle line and alter the contour of the diagram in that way. Our diagram would, however, continue to be triangular in shape, and when, simply, by sanitation, hygiene, improved medicine, and a more abundant provision of the necessaries of life, the general bulk, or the size of the diagram, would be increased, because of its always triangular shape, those lines towards the base would increase most and fastest. The first apparent object of civilization, as we have it, is to set an equal valuation on all human lives alike, and the prolonged continuance of all human lives is the first object of social effort. This is the principal reason why the more civilized a country, the more multiplied become its deficients and defectives, and the greater the demand for charities. Very little is done to prevent the naturally greater increase of the numbers below the middle of the diagram. If we preserve them, they increase the fastest.

This is a most perplexing question, a most difficult one to solve and control, humanely. The ignorantly and purposely uncontrolled natural appetites of the large majority, below the middle line, rich and poor, tend to oppose and thwart race improvement. Those who occupy levels above this line often fail or decline to continue their phyla. The trend of anti-sexual ethics, so prevalent, leads to this result. All allusion to phylal continuance is debarred from polite society.

Phylal psychic decline comes easily—where there is no effort and because of no effort; phylal psychic improvement is difficult—it comes only with psychic effort and because of effort. The idle rich and the idle poor notoriously decline in psychic abilities. The healthy, industrious classes alone improve.

In this country by improved sanitation, better medicine and surgery, better living, and more abundance of the necessaries, the average length of human life has been raised to approaching forty years. This is accomplished not so much by putting more into the ranks of the old, as by bringing up the more numerous short-lived, from childhood into adult life; where they propagate their kind. They naturally become the most numerous when protected from self-elimination. The subject of heredity has never yet been properly taken up. By all our civilization, it is true, however, that we do not undo nature's methods very much, of eliminating most in the lines below the middle of the diagram, for notwithstanding all the efforts of wealth, education, abundance, or humane sentiment, these phyla go down and out fastest. We hold them and multiply them; but natural laws still prevail, until they eliminate the family or the whole race, sometimes. Human progress, eugenics, stirpiculture, race improvement, whatever you call it, goes upon two legs; one of them is heredity, principally heredity of the psychic department, the other is the environment. The philanthropic devote all their attention to the environment. The other leg deserves attention in the upper levels of the racial diagram.

Some legislation has been obtained, looking to the prevention of the increase of the mentally abnormal by preventing their marrying. This, of course, does some good; but it affects only the extreme grades, who naturally tend rapidly to elimination. More numerous milder grades, declining in abilities, are not interfered with. They are not yet legally abnormal, consequently they increase. Some would have us unsex the inmates of penitentiaries and insane hospitals. This would have a hardly appreciable effect in the next generation; such classes are recruited, in the very large majority, from all deteriorating ranks in society, rich and poor, artistocratic and plebian. It would be impossible to place such surgery where it would do most good.

Proper and laudable attempts have been made of late to increase general information on the subject of phylal continuance. There is serious need for such instruction, properly given. How to teach sexism, or phyal continuance, to the innocent, has lately become a theme for discussion among the educators of the land. I do not believe the subject can be more properly approached,

because it is the method of nature, than by teaching the truths and principles of biology. Phylal continuance is the living thread that holds that whole study together. It can be illustrated throughout all living nature, in showing phylal continuance and sex methods, by gradual approaches from the lowest forms to the highest, in a way to give least offense to usual ideas of propriety. This method works practically in the schools very well, where it has been tried. It removes all mystery, and correctly instructs natural inquisitiveness, which all half-grown children have, in a legitimate way.

In the transition of phylal morphology and physiology, it is said, with considerable degree of plausibility, that there is a tendency in the passage from one generation to the next for the sexes to alternate; that is, for the male of one generation to become female in the next, and vice versa. This leads to an equalization of the numbers of the sexes in the succeeding generations; and while, in the phylal coalescence, there is a quite equal combination of psychic habits and traits, a slight excess or preponderance alternates with the sex; so the sons of one generation, in psychic qualifications, most favor the fathers of the mothers' family tree, and the daughters most favor the mothers of the father's tree. There is something in this generalization.

Direct injury to the psychic department of man, in its grand cerebral center, is widespread in the land, occasioned by the injurious use for luxuries of some agents, that are known in medicine, as anodynes and anesthetics. A general awakening of public interest is broadcast over the country on this subject. Prohibition laws to stop the extension of their use, are enacted in all the states. The anesthetic, alcohol, stands first, because its injury is most pointedly cerebral. The anodynes, caffein, nicotine, cocaine, codeine, morphine, and the like, all, however, do brain injury, and tend to develop into a serious abnormality any inherited tendency or predisposition to mental aberrancy, that otherwise might remain latent in a person. They all produce neurasthenia and cerebrasthenia in those who are given to their repeated use. The so general use of such agents, too, in society is begetting, as a phylal trait, a peculiar neurasthenia or cerebrasthenia, which to use a slangous word, we may call the "dope-diathesis," affected with which, by heredity from

"doped" ancestry, the person is never comfortable unless "doped" in one way or another. Over-sensibility is the leading symptom of the neurasthenic. He "feels bad" when he ought not. He is born "feeling bad," and takes readily to the habitual use of anodyne and anesthetic drugs of one kind or another. Race deterioration and race improvement are largely interested in this question. Those of us who work in fields into which come the mentally deficient and defective, are more readily cognizant of these facts than others. It is a good and propitious time to tell the scientific aspects of the alcohol question and of others similar to it, particularly, as they relate to the brain.

I have no time to speak longer on the subject of heredity. I hope I have drawn such attention to it as will indicate its importance. Scientific instruction on heredity—particularly psychic heredity—is sadly needed.

A PLEA FOR THE CHRONIC INSANE*

BY DR. ALBERT WARREN FERRIS, PRESIDENT OF THE STATE BOARD OF INSANITY OF NEW YORK

In the olden time, but I am sorry to say recently enough to be remembered by most of us, the classification of insanity comprised mania—acute, sub-acute and chronic; melancholia—acute, sub-acute and chronic; dementia and general paralysis. This classification was crude but easy, simple but deadly. It is not surprising that, although this classification was adopted at an International Congress of Psychiatrists, held in Paris, rebellion against such a division of the subject began at once, and even at this day no one is entirely satisfied with present subdivisions. At the same time this classification was in vogue the idea became rooted and well grounded that a person who had been insane for over a year was probably incurable and that everyone who had been insane two years was hopeless. These two year cases were called "chronic." They received no treatment and little individual care. No further inquiry was made into the antecedent conditions or the causes of their malady. If they were noisy or violent they were condemned to seclusion or

*An abridged abstract from a larger paper on this subject.

restraint, or both, for long periods, and in many cases daily. Furthermore, it was a common practice to exhibit such insane people to the curious and the thoughtless who visited the old style asylums and county houses for amusement; a common practice, but a most heartless one. The old county houses in the State of New York used to maintain the alleged chronic cases in the cheapest fashion; with insufficient food of poor quality; insufficient clothing, in some of the destructive and uncleanly cases, with none at all; with wretched quarters, in many instances, and neglected in all respects. It was a very common thing for patients to be subjected to restraint if they were dependent, whether they were really turbulent or destructive or not. They were often strapped to chairs during the day and to their beds at night. Such instances are recorded of women delicately nurtured. But that was considered proper treatment.

I remember the case of a man who brought to the insane asylum his mother who had become insane. He said, "She has been a good mother. She has worked hard all her life. She has raised her family of children. But I think she has outlived her usefulness, and I brought her here to be cared for. I don't think she will live long." A mother outlived her usefulness—I couldn't say that of a faithful dog. And yet that was said of a gentle woman.

Under the "State Care System," which has been in operation in New York since 1890, the insane have been treated as sick people; hospitals have taken the place of asylums; nurses have supplanted keepers, and the study of the diseases and the conditions, whose symptoms we call insanity, has resulted in a large percentage of recoveries. What can we say when, after four years of insanity, a patient recovers? What can we say concerning a case of a woman in New York State who, after seven years of depressive insanity, emerged and has remained entirely well for years? What can we say concerning the case of a man, whom it was my good fortune to see last year, who has recovered his reason absolutely after ten years of insanity? Who dares say then that any insane person is incurable? We may as well admit that the simple fact is that we have yet a great deal to learn concerning the treatment and the cure of mental disturbances.

But I think I hear someone say is not general paralysis incurable? My reply to that question is, do you know that two cases of general paralysis were treated by Dr. Ford Robertson and Dr. McRae, of Edinborough, with diphtheria anti-toxin in 1907 and showed marked improvement? Do you know that undoubted cases of general paralysis observed by competent alienists have been cured by the use of pilocarpine in conjunction with occupation and regulated habits of life?

Insanity is not a special disease, like malaria, to be treated with a specific like quinine. It is rather a sociological problem influenced by heredity, faulty education, habits, food, surroundings, occupation and physical disorders.

How then should it be treated? The barest outline of a reply would be to say that we should ascertain and treat the physical disorders, control the habits and form new ones, inaugurate a regular life, furnish occupation and provide the judicious influence of sound minds. This treatment certainly brings results, and the chronic patient has just as much right to individual treatment and to a chance of recovery as the recent case has.

In New York State twenty-five per cent. of the cases that recover, or are sent home sufficiently improved to recover at home, come from the chronic class.

It was with great regret, though, I must say, not with surprise, that I heard a senator in our own state remark a short time ago that the best thing for the large majority of insane patients was to feed them, clothe them and house them and wait for them to perish. This, I consider, a most inhumane and cruel remark.

The idea of the modern psychiatrist, as shown in state hospitals for the insane, is not the mere management of institutions in which tremendous aggregations of patients can be made and wholesaling the entire matter of maintenance and medical treatment can be practiced. On the contrary, the problem we have to solve is to study the insanity of individuals and to shape our activities so that the individual psychosis may be fairly understood and each patient may have separate treatment and a fair chance for recovery.

Occupation is perhaps the greatest of all agencies that we

can bring to bear in the case of the chronic insane. With us, in New York State, as many patients as can possibly be occupied, are taught to make mattresses, brushes, brooms, mats, rugs, aprons, fancy work, shoes and straw hats; while others are taught carpentry, farming, painting and all minor trades which do not need actually skilled laobr.

After the intensity of the psychosis is past, it is possible in a large number of cases, to discharge the insane patient on parole, if he can be put into the care of some responsible and interested person. We have in connection with many of our state hospitals "after-care committees," composed of philanthropic and devoted men and women who are willing to lend a helping hand to the recovering insane person, provide occupation and raise up friends for him, and let him feel that there is some one to whom he can look for moral and mental strength, as he struggles up out of darkness toward the light.

Imagine a person who has long been insane, leaving an institution where he has been sheltered? He is timid, shrinking and suspicious. As he goes out into the world he feels he is a marked man, known and shunned.

We have had in our state for many years the system of parole. When we think a patient is able to stand alone and can go out into the world and struggle for his livelihood, he is paroled thirty days. He must report, before that period expires, to the hospital and ask for an extension of parole. He makes application, and the parole is extended at the office of the State Commissioner in Albany.

We have just succeeded in having passed by our legislature a bill providing for the extension of this parole. This extension will permit the discharge of the patient by the superintendent of the hospital at any time within six months, according to the discretion of the superintendent. This will enable our "after-care committees" to secure the co-operation of the hospital for a longer period than heretofore. It will also permit of an experiment of sending out more cases at an earlier day than would have been safe under the old thirty-day system. It frequently happens that the impetus of the hospital life and treatment lasts a little over one month, and then the patient breaks down again and needs to return for institution treatment.

To avoid such a contingency it has been necessary to retain patients over this interval of a month and thus, for safety's sake, some are retained longer in the hospitals than need now be the case. It is to be hoped that this, with correct treatment of the insane, will spread over the whole country, and such committees will be attached to all insane asylums and hospitals. I hope to see such progress made, in the consideration of the insane person by the outside world, that the term "chronic" shall be abandoned entirely, including, as it does, the terms "incurable" and "hopeless." I would prefer to call those that are not recent cases "protracted" cases and not "chronic."

As great a work as is accomplished by curing the comparatively small percentage of those that entirely recover, is done in a successful attempt to make as much as can be made of the remnant of life that is left to the "protracted" case; to bring some light into his darkness; to bring some joy into his heart; to bring a smile to his face; to teach him to do something that is useful and that will support him, and thus provide encouragement and some real reason for existence.

This will be affording him that which is his constitutional right and privilege, to give him as much life as can be opened up for him; to put before him as much liberty as he is capable of enjoying; and to assist him toward the pursuit of such happiness as his lowered mentality may leave within his reach.

CARE AND CONDITION OF THE INSANE IN VIRGINIA

BY DR. WM. F. DREWRY, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE VIRGINIA STATE HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE

To reflecting persons, the public sentiment which made possible the establishment of the first state hospital exclusively for the insane, in this country, could not have emanated from the hearts and minds of any but humane and intelligent people.

Looking upon the offspring of our earlier years and contemplating what has been accomplished, and feeling the need of much yet to be done, we can but have constantly recurring

unselfish impulses, and in consequence be prompted to an increase of benevolent effort.

The hospital, located at historic Williamsburg, was chartered in 1769 and opened in 1773, as the charter reads, "for the reception of idiots, lunatics, persons of insane and disordered minds."

In 1828 another state hospital was established, located at Staunton, in the picturesque valley; and in 1887 another, at Marion, in the great Southwest. In 1870 a separate state institution was opened near Richmond, exclusively for the colored insane, the first in this country.

These four hospitals care for all the insane of the state, numbering now 3,735, including 385 on furlough—3,380 actually in the hospitals. To care for this army of unfortunates there are 340 officers and employes, or a ratio of 1 to 10. The proportion of nurses and attendants to patients is 1 to 16. The ratio of the insane to the general population is 1 to about 525.

The estimated value of the buildings, farms, property, and equipment of these institutions is $1,500,000. The Legislature appropriates this year for their maintenance and improvement nearly $500,000, or about $125 per year for each patient in the hospitals.

The pay feature in the state institutions has been abolished, so that now all the insane of the state, poor and rich alike, who need and desire it, receive, without cost, the benefits of her public hospitals.

From the beginning, the principles of state care and supervision have been the guiding and dominant influence in dealing with the insane in this state. At all times the state has preserved a jealous care for her insane, maintaining supervision over them and control of the hospitals.

Under the present system, each hospital is under the direct control of a board of three, and these several boards constitute a general central board, which, with a commissioner, has control and supervision of the entire system. The commissioner is a salaried official. The members of the board render their service without compensation. In addition, there has been recently established a State Board of Charities and Corrections, having mainly visitorial and advisory functions. This is one of the

most advanced steps ever taken in the public interest of not only the insane, but every other class of dependents and delinquents, as well as the public and private charitable and correctional institutions generally.

Under certain conditions, this board shall investigate any institution and make such recommendations as it may deem proper for the good of the public service. The Governor has appointed a board, the personnel and qualifications of which are sufficient guarantee that the provisions of the new law will be carried out efficiently, conscientiously and fearlessly. The members of that board are attending the sessions of this conference, that they may gather information which will better qualify them for the important public duties incumbent upon them. Their first great duty is the selection of a secretary and an assistant secretary, upon whom the greater part of the work of the new branch of the public service must fall.

In this respect, I am confident that the board as constituted will act wisely and be uninfluenced except for the general good of the public service.

The aim of our system is general uniformity, co-operation and co-ordination of all the forces which work for the ultimate good and advancement of the institutions and the treatment and care of the inmates. The elasticity of it is such that it permits of the exercise of a considerable degree of individualism in management, which is necessary to the development of personal qualifications and efficiency.

In the administrative affairs of the hospitals there is no duality, and should not be. The superintendent is the one chief executive head, and is held responsible for the conduct of affairs at the institution; consequently, there can be no conflict of authority, no shirking of responsibility. Some of the important officers are appointed by the boards, and the rest and all the employes by the superintendent, subject to approval by the board. In practice, however, the selection of all officers and employes is now practically left to the superintendent, subject to approval by the board.

Our institutions are not magnificent piles of brick, stone and mortar, monuments to fancied architectural skill. Little money has been wasted on unnecessary embellishments. Useless

ornamentation, elaborate equipment, plate glass, scroll work and trimmings for show are conspicuous by their absence. Our aim has been to utilize the limited means at our command as best we could, in providing comfortable accommodations, humane care and nursing and good medical attention for all the insane of the state, rather than to build the finest structures, thoroughly equipped, to care for some and leave the rest in jails and poorhouses, to live a life of misery and suffering.

It is gratifying to be able to say that the results, so far as recovery is concerned, compare favorably with other institutions in this country.

At a time when her public treasury was depleted, her resources undeveloped, her people suffering from the vicissitudes of war, Virginia established an asylum for all the colored insane in her territory. Ever since, with rare exceptions for short periods, every committed colored person in the state has been cared for, at the public expense.

It was a rather interesting coincidence that the first colored insane person committed to state care in Virginia was named *Charity*. She was sent to the hospital at Williamsburg in 1774. From that time until immediately after the war, when the Freedmen's Bureau utilized an old Confederate hospital near Richmond for their accommodation, the negro insane were cared for, in separate quarters, at the Eastern Hospital. In 1848 the General Assembly took steps looking to the establishment of a separate institution. This plan, however, did not materialize until 1870.

In 1885 the new institution at Petersburg was opened, with 400 patients; to-day there are 1330.

The officers and heads of departments and many of the employes holding responsible positions are white; the trained nurses and attendants are all colored.

The property embraces 500 acres; the value of the entire plant is about half a million dollars. The Legislature appropriates this year $136,000 for its maintenance and improvement.

In the care of the patients we have a psychopathic building, where the acute and recent cases are examined, studied and treated; separate wards for the sick, the infirm, the chronic, the homicidal or criminal classes; separate buildings for epileptics,

constructed and opened in 1896; a farm colony, a mile away, for a group of chronic cases. The tubercular cases have been separated, since 1904, from other patients, in tents and inexpensive pavilions. The consumptive men are provided for at a colony located a mile from the main plant, under very favorable conditions. The results from this out-door treatment have been fairly satisfactory. The attendants have a comfortable home in a building set aside exclusively for them. There is a large farm attached—500 acres—various shops, and industries for the employment and benefit of the patients, particularly the chronic cases. Simple amusements are provided, to make life happy. No restraints, such as straight-jackets or camisoles and the like, have been permitted for years. The system is well-nigh an open door one. The medical and nursing service is conducted along lines of the progress of the day, though owing to the small number of physicians and nurses and inadequate means, we do not accomplish nearly all we desire.

It has frequently been observed that prior to the war there were very few insane negroes, yet since then there has been a constant increase in their numbers. To give you an idea of this increase, I copy from the records the number of patients at the hospital during the last year of each decade for the past half century:

In 1860, 27 in the hospital at Williamsburg; in 1870, the new institution opened with 168; in 1880 there were 395; in 1890, 708; in 1900, 1,195; in 1905, 1,444.

During the first half of the present fiscal year, 1,450 have been under care. The ratio of insane to the general population is one to 540.

To discuss the causes which have operated with such disastrous results to the negro's mind since his emancipation, and to account for the increasing numbers sent to the hospital, would require almost a volume. Briefly stated, and without effort to classify in order of importance, I will give you my own views in the matter:

1st. During slavery there were doubtless many mildly insane and weakminded and senile negroes, who were cared for by their owners and never reported. In those days the census reports were very imperfect.

In 1846 the General Assembly passed a bill permitting insane slaves to be received in the Williamsburg asylum. The white insane were first provided for, and, when there was sufficient room, negroes were received and given accommodation. Nevertheless, the old inhabitants tell us that before the '60's an insane negro was a rarity, and the facts all go to show that the disease was by no means prevalent among the race. The regular, simple life, the hygienic conditions, the freedom from dissipation and excitement, steady and healthful employment, enforced self restraint, the freedom from care and responsibility, the plain, wholesome, nourishing food, comfortable clothing, the open-air life upon the plantation, the kindly care and treatment when sick, in those days, all acted as preventive measures against mental breakdown in the negro.

2nd. After the war there was a great change in conditions. The negro, as a race, was not prepared to care for himself, to combat the new problems in his life. His weak points were no longer protected. He became a prey to his own weaknesses and passions and to whatever constitutional deficiencies he had. The ignorance and disregard of hygienic laws, the promiscuous over-crowding in living quarters, the laxness in the bonds of the family circle. Habits of indolence, intemperance, immorality; often insufficient and unwholesome, cheap and adulterated food and whiskey, have all operated against the physical and mental welfare of the negro. And in recent years he has become, in a large measure, a victim to the cocaine and other drug habits.

3rd. Hereditary deficiencies and unchecked constitutional diseases and defects, with their direful influences, transmitted from parent to offspring, with an almost desperate disregard of consequences, play now a hazardous part in the causation of insanity and epilepsy in the race. It has only been in recent years that hereditary influences have been a significant factor.

4th. A better understanding now than formerly of the nature of insanity, and a more general knowledge and appreciation of the benefits derived from hospital care and treatment, and an increased confidence in the humane methods usually in vogue, tend to increase the number of commitments in the negro race as well as the white.

This confidence in the hospital has grown in this state, notwithstanding the fact that, as Dr. Frederick Peterson says, "There still exists among the people an ancient legacy of feeling about an asylum, and they pass it as they do a prison or a cemetery, with mixed dread and mistrust."

5th. The crowding in unsanitary hovels in cities, idleness, irregular habits, lack of peaceful rest in comfortable and healthful environment, have tremendous effect in undermining the health of the negro and making him an easy subject to mental disease.

6th. A willingness, even desire, of many of the negroes now-a-days to shift from themselves to the state the burden of care of those who are weakminded or physiologically senile or dotard; and the simplicity of our medico-judicial methods of commitment, as compared with the former complicated judicial procedure, which was not unlike a trial for a criminal offense, are other ways of accounting for the increased number of patients in our hospitals.

7th. The regular life and constant care and treatment of the chronic insane in a hospital tend to prolong life, and thus cause an ever increasing accumulation of chronic incurable cases, who are a charge ever afterwards upon the state.

It is a fact worthy of observation that the greater number of insane negroes come from the uneducated, thriftless classes and from the old and decrepit; comparatively few of our patients come from the educated and more prosperous classes. A well nourished, intelligent, thrifty negro, leading a correct life, is probably little more liable to become insane than a white person under similar conditions, except for the fact that the powers of resistance and endurance are weaker in his race than in the white race. In short, the negro is to-day an easier prey to constitutional diseases than the whites, succumbs more readily to strain, stress and disease.

As to state provision for epileptics. Virginia is now getting into line with the progressive states, which have established colonies, villages or hospitals for this class of defectives. For many years past, since 1894, this important matter has been kept alive in the state by those who had an abiding faith in the ultimate outcome. Within a year, a small colony will be opened

in the Piedmont section, the Legislature having made an initial appropriation for the purpose. I have not a doubt that this will rapidly develop into a great public institution, and eventually reflect credit upon the generosity of a great commonwealth and the humanitarian and progressive spirit of our people.

Our institutions and the standard of care for our insane are not all we would have them.

We regret our financial inability to provide for our insane more liberally than we do, and to equip our institutions better than they are, yet, considering the adverse circumstances that have so long confronted our people, we suffer no pangs of remorse for a duty undone. There has been progress in this department of the state's work, and I look forward to decided advancement in the near future. The spirit of progress is growing. The day will soon come in Virginia when our institutions will compare favorably with the best in the land; we will have our psychopathic hospitals, our pathological laboratories; the epileptic will be comfortably cared for in a colony; the criminal insane will be segregated; after-care associations will flourish; and preventive measures will be publicly taught. The salaries of officers and employes will be made sufficient to attract and keep in the service the best talent. I am an earnest advocate of the state's providing for all its insane the best that there is in the way of treatment and care, and encouraging the scientific study of the subject of insanity.

> Dr. Kraepelin says: "Scientific observation and experience form the firm foundation upon which the whole question of the care of the insane is based. Every step forward—and many steps backward—in the care of the insane are more or less closely related with the medical conceptions regarding the existence and the causes of insanity. It has bcome more and more the duty of the State to foster scientific investigations in the hospitals for the insane. In this respect psychiatry has long enough been treated as a stepchild. Although our old asylum physicians afford brilliant examples of what can be accomplished with very inadequate means in the attainment of high scientific ideals, the state has only recently recognized that a healthful progress in the care of the insane is not possible without a continuous development of scientific work."

We want, however, the best way pointed out to us, and, to the extent of our means, and with intense interest and energy, we shall go on to the acquirement of things that will put us abreast of the progressive and philanthropic states of this country.

Defectives

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY EDWARD R. JOHNSTONE, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE N. J. TRAINING SCHOOL, ACTING CHAIRMAN

PRACTICAL PROVISION FOR THE MENTALLY DEFICIENT

Believing that one of the duties of such a conference as this is to bring to the locality where it is held, suggestions which may be of value on the spot, I propose to speak more particularly of conditions that I think will fit Virginia, than to attempt to cover the subject broadly for the whole country. I am of course more familiar with the way things are done in New Jersey than with what has been done in any other state, but there are many respects in which New Jersey and Virginia are alike, so that it would seem to be perfectly safe to offer advice here such as should be offered in New Jersey were we just beginning the work there.

The estimated population of New Jersey in 1906 was about 2,000,000, and of Virginia 1,900,000, and the children of school age in New Jersey 550,000, and in Virginia 600,000, of whom, by the way, only 60 per cent. are enrolled in school.

In estimating the number of feeble-minded in any state, superintendents of institutions and students of sociology have agreed that we are nearly correct, but certainly conservative, when we say that there are two in every thousand of the population. This would mean about 3,800 in Virginia. There are about this many in New Jersey, and we should be very sorry to believe that we are more feeble-minded than the good people of Virginia.

If then there are, at least, 3,800 mentally deficient in this state, what can be done to make suitable provision for them?

Under the title "Mentally Deficient" there are two main classes to be considered. First, those commonly known as slow, backward, atypical or neurotic, and this may include all who attend the public schools who need special classes because they are

behind grade, deficient in capability, suffering from special sense defects or morally below par. Second, those commonly known as feeble-minded, and this will include the imbeciles, idiots and the so-called moral imbeciles.

The line between these two classes is too fine to draw. No one can put his finger upon the border line cases and say, this one is feeble-minded and that one is merely backward, and so for many years we shall find feeble-minded children in the special classes and merely backward children in the public institutions for the feeble-minded. It is the hope of all engaged in the work that such a line of distinction may soon be correctly drawn, for, theoretically, the weaknesses of the backward child are not transmissible to his offspring, and so he may properly be trained for life in the great world without danger. On the other hand the degeneracy of the feeble-minded is transmissible and so they must have permanent custody, if society is to be saved from the grave dangers which have so often been spoken of and which will undoubtedly be called to mind during this conference.

We must consider then provision for the backward child and provision for those who are feeble-minded, and we would like to know how this may be done so as to begin at once, get something of real value accomplished soon, and do it in the most economical way.

As neither the people of Virginia, nor of any other state where the work is not well under way, are willing to believe that there are 3,800 feeble-minded in their state, upon the mere word of an outsider, it becomes necessary to get at the facts of the case as soon and as accurately as possible.

In no way can this be more easily done than through the public schools. There are but eighteen city superintendents and 100 division superintendents to get interested in Virginia. My own experience in Indiana several years ago, and just lately in New Jersey, convinces me that your superintendents will eagerly assist any movement toward relieving them of this class.

There is not a primary class in your state that has not at least one mentally deficient child therein, and most classes contain several. These children are unable to do the work of their fellows and the effect of such a pupil in the class is bad

for all the other children, who are sure to contract habits, mannerisms, etc., from him. It is particularly hard on the teacher, who, already having a class-room full of normal children, has this additional burden thrust upon her. In her endeavor to do her full duty she of course attempts to give more attention to the child who is backward, and so he receives time and effort of the teacher out of all proportion to his right.

The child itself is among children all of whom are his superiors. He very soon feels the influence of this, and invariably shrinks within himself, discouraged and dissatisfied. It is the commonest experience that a child who is merely backward, put at work in the regular public school class, degenerates because his environment is not suitable for his proper growth and mental development. In this way many backward children slowly drop over the line and take their places among the actual defectives. The teachers keenly feel this class of children, and superintendents will soon have their attention called to them, once they begin their investigation.

Some one body or person must take the responsibility of starting and keeping at this work until it is well under way. Your State Board of Charities could well do it, or a committee from the State Medical Association, or the State Teachers' Association, but someone from this conference should begin *now* if results are really wanted.

We have had in New Jersey institutions for the feeble-minded for twenty years, medical inspection of school children for seven years, and special classes in the public schools for two years, but we've been *very* slow and have gone at it wrong way around.

I recommend to the people of Virginia to reverse the order and conduct the three kinds of work together as nearly as possible. I suggest how to go about it by telling you what *we* have just done.

A few months ago the State Teachers' Association of New Jersey attempted to find the number of backward and feeble-minded children in the public schools of the state. A package of questionaires, prepared by Professor J. J. Unger, of Vineland; Professor William J. Echoff, of Newark, and the writer, was

sent to every superintendent of schools in the state. They distributed them among their teachers.

There was good co-operation upon the part of the superintendents and teachers, and the results, while only suggestive, are decidedly significant. The questions follow:

1. Total number examined?
2. Number behind grade?
3. Total number of years behind grade?
4. Number who do not see well?
5. Number who do not hear well?
6. Number who have defective speech?
7. Number, who on putting out the tongue put it markedly to either side.
8. Number who cannot follow a coin readily with their eyes when it is moved from side to side, or up and down?
9. Number who cannot put arms out straightforward, fingers together?
10. Number who cannot make the finger tips meet overhead with arms in half circle?
11. Number with slovenly gait?
12. Number with twitching muscles?
13. Number who drool?
14. Describe carefully any case that seems to you out of place in your room?

And the following suggestions were printed on the opposite side of the blank to aid in answering question 14.

"In deciding upon a case unfit for education in the public schools, you may be aided by the following: Bear in mind that no one symptom is significant, unless excessively marked, while several strongly marked or many clearly marked are important, if taken in conjunction.

1. Blinking, twitching of the mouth, squinting, nervous movements of hands and feet.
2. Incoordination, especially irregularities of gait.
3. Spasms, fits, hysterical crying and laughing.
4. Cold and clammy hands and excessive pallor or blushing.
5. Drooling, especially if accompanied by sore mouth, ears and eyes.
6. Slight malformations of cranium, eyes, ears, teeth, palate and limbs.
7. Carelessness, indolence, inattention, unreliable memory, obstinacy and either passion or stolidness.
8. Incapacity for simple acts, e. g. to tie knots, button clothes, go up and down stairs properly, catch ball, etc.
9. Imperfections of speech, sight, hearing, etc.
10. Excessive exaggeration, falsehood, pilfering, and poor moral sense.
11. Inability to keep up in studies, as shown by persistent excess of the child's age over the average age of his class."

This form, or a similar one, should be sent within a month to the school superintendents of Virginia, and the facts will give the movement a forceful impulse.

A similar study, but much more elaborate, was made by the

Colorado Teachers' Association last year. Superintendent C. E. Chadsey's report upon Denver says:

"This study is based upon the reports of forty-two of the Denver principals, the membership of whose schools approximate 22,000.

"(1) The principals report 750 backward children. It is difficult to judge accurately as to the exactness of this report, based as it must be upon the judgment of many different teachers and principals; that is to say, many teachers will classify as backward, children who would not be so classified by others. In general, these 750 represent children who are unable to keep up with the ordinary grade work of the schools, and who are, for various reasons, much older than the children of the grade to which they are assigned.

"(2) The principals of Denver unanimously believe that children of this type should be educated in special schools. They feel that not only is the work of the regular pupil injured by the presence of the backward child, but that these children themselves suffer from not having sufficient individual attention, and from being compelled to do things which they could easily be excused from doing were they at work in special schools.

"(3) There is also a practically unanimous opinion that these schools should be local. The number of backward children seems to justify their belief that every large school should have one or more ungraded rooms with especially trained teachers, whose full attention can be given to these backward children."

Of course the teachers will put different constructions upon the meaning of the questions, but scientific accuracy is not to be expected. The facts that may be gleaned will be startling enough. All will feel the need of more accurate knowledge of mental deficiency, and one earnest man or woman, with the facts thus gained, and the help of the public press, can arouse a public sentiment in this matter which will establish special classes in public schools on the one hand, and begin a public institution for the really feeble-minded cases on the other.

This investigation then is to be the beginning, and can be done at once at practically no cost. Every progressive superintendent of schools will co-operate—the others will have to be driven to it later by public opinion.

Two years ago there was one special class in New Jersey. To-day there are ten, and by the close of the next school year there will be fifty, and the parents of both normals and specials are urging the work along. It is no longer an experiment. Classes are now in operation in Providence, Springfield, Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore, San Francisco, Chicago, Worcester, Stamford, Conn., Rochester, Detroit, Los Angeles, Washington and Cleveland, as well as in several of the cities of New Jersey.

Let us return a moment to the facts ascertained by the examinations made in New Jersey. The total number of children examined was 84,016; the number reported behind grade was 18,425, about 22 per cent. Eight per cent. of boys and 11 per cent. of girls were reported as not seeing well; 3 per cent. of boys and 2 per cent. of girls not hearing well; 2 per cent. of boys and 1 per cent. of girls having defective speech. The chorea tests showed 1 to 5 per cent. Slovenly gait was reported in 3 per cent. About 1,000 were reported with twitching muscles and 300 who drooled.

There were 150 descriptions of individual cases, every one indicating a quite serious degree of backwardness or mental deficiency; in all cases, conditions that should not be in the regular classes of the public schools.

Some superintendents thought these tests of no value as they were not made by experts, or those trained in making such tests. This, of course, is a weak point, but, as has been said, no accurate conclusions are to be arrived at as the result of this examination. The report says, after reporting a number of these cases, "One pupil such as described in any of the cases above is doing an immense amount of injury to the normal pupils in the room, and is deriving no benefit from the school. Besides, this one pupil uses up more of the teacher's energy than thirty-nine normal pupils would. No teacher can do justice to her normal pupils with such deficients in her class."

"How much extra will the special classes cost," someone is sure to ask.

I presume that the people of this good old commonwealth believe that every child is entitled to such education as he is able to use.

Now it is a fact proven in many instances that for every deficient child removed from a regular class the teacher can, and would rather, care for and train from two to five normal children, to the advantage of the other pupils, the general advancement of the room and the saving of wear and tear on the teacher's nerves. In the end it will actually cost less in dollars and cents.

Every teacher having these mental deficients and those who are morally depraved will urge it upon her supervisors to

segregate them from the regular classes and place them in special classes. This will oblige boards of education to provide for special classes, and the parents of normals will insist upon their removal for the sake of their own children.

I quote again from the New Jersey report:

> "If these special classes can be established in connection with the public schools they will do much to discover the actually feeble-minded cases in the different communities of the state, and thus, being a clearing house in the hands of intelligent people, will more strongly impress the legislators with the needs of a public institution for feeble-minded.
>
> "Too much emphasis cannot be laid upon the fact that the normal child is suffering even more than the defective child by the latter being required to go to school in the regular class."

Of the 3,800 children in Virginia needing our consideration many more than one-fourth are suffering from remediable defects—sight, hearing, adenoids, chorea, etc., (New York reports 48 per cent in this condition) and the damage done by these defects is out of all proportion to their apparent importance. Nearly one-fourth more are of such a class that they may or will be kept at home by their parents, with little or no danger of ever doing damage to themselves or others, or of procreating their kind. More than one-fourth can and must be cared for in the special classes in the public schools, which they will leave in time for one of four reasons: First, death; second, they may be graduated to the regular classes; third, they will be removed to the State Institution for the Feeble-Minded, and fourth (and this is a part of the third), they will be kept until they grow too old for the schools and then go to the institutions.

A State institution is necessary, however, and every year of delay means greater burdens of crime, immorality and degeneracy. Defectives cannot be permitted to starve. They are supported now by their stronger brethren, in an unorganized and slipshod way that permits the burden to increase instead of diminishing it by striking at the root. They are of poor judgment and weak will, and are easily led astray, and so many fill the jails, workhouses, etc., because they are irresponsible and have been led into evil simply because they knew no better.

Every reform school in the country reports a large percentage of its inmates as being mentally deficient, and the brothels all contain a large percentage of feeble-minded young women who

have been led astray because their sexual instincts were not controlled by good judgment and will.

Since 1884 the files of this Conference show paper after paper presented in the effort to have greater provision made for the mentally deficient. We are slow to act on these things in America, but now the country seems aroused to the need of doing something. Such family histories as the Jukes in New York, the Ross family in Indiana, the family of Lucy X in Pennsylvania, and the Jackson whites, and the Jackson blacks in New Jersey, are duplicated in practically every state in the Union, and it merely needs someone to take the matter up thoroughly to demonstrate that Virginia cannot afford to let such cases go unprovided for.

The first institution should be the Training School. Here, in theory, should be admitted only children who are trainable, but in practice it will be found advisable to receive a percentage of adults, preferably women of child-bearing age. A little care in the selection of applicants, will enable those in charge to so arrange its inmates that the larger children can do a great deal of the work, and so contribute toward their own support as the institution is growing.

The institution should by all means be built upon the cottage plan, and before the site is selected it should be pretty thoroughly decided just what buildings will be needed and how they should be located in reference to each other.

In the past much money has been unnecessarily spent upon institution buildings. We have, I am sorry to say, in our own state an institution that cost $3,000 per bed. This is extravagance. Plain, substantial buildings, with modern sanitary toilet facilities, and of architectural beauty, but no filagrees, are what we need.

Before considering the locating of an institution in Virginia the excellent report made by the Commission appointed to select a site for what we all hope will be the Haverstraw State Colony, made to the New York Legislature a few weeks ago, should be studied very carefully.

The institution should be carefully located so as to make use of all natural advantages. It should be reasonably close to a railway, so as to have shipping facilities. It should have plenty

of land with a fair amount uncleared, for a large number of middle to low grade children can find excellent work clearing land, making roads, etc., and it should be so situated as to have a pure and ample water supply easily obtainable, and conveniences for getting rid of sewage in a sanitary manner. The institution should be planned to care for at least five hundred, but it is not advisable to make provision for a thousand or more. The superintendents of the large institutions all over the country are feeling today that it is a mistake to have too many defective children under one management.

Theoretically the organization is such that, when the Superintendent leaves, a new one can easily carry on the work without harm to the inmates, but in practice the right man is not always appointed successor, and the children are the first to suffer.

To summarize, Virginia needs today, in order to provide for this class promptly, properly and economically, just one or two (at most four or five) persons who will really give their attention to accomplish the work. They have three main points of attack.

First, the State Board of Education, and especially the superintendents of schools who must be urged and again urged, and kept at by these four or five, until they make a thorough report upon the number in their schools, and then establish special classes. Publicity is what is needed to accomplish this, and reports of the kind described, even if presented in a very conservative manner, make first-class newspaper material.

Second, the State Medical Association must be aroused and medical inspection driven home to them. A little voluntary work on the part of a few of the progressive physicians, who might be requested to write papers and deliver addresses on the particular topic, "Medical Inspection in the Public Schools," would start a movement like a snowball rolling down a steep hill on a damp day (even in Virginia) whose size would awaken the great public.

Third, the State Board of Charities must meet the problem of the institution. This board must present to the legislators as well as the public all facts regarding—*a*, the loss of energy and effort by having these people in institutions un-

suited to their needs, and therefore the crowding out of suitable inmates; *b*, the cost, in morals, because of their poor judgment and weak wills; in property, because of the damage they are constantly doing; in life, for many deaths are to be laid at the doors of the degenerates; in trials, for they are constantly being brought before the law; in charge, as untrained they are constantly becoming more of a burden; *c*, the advantages of training so that they may contribute something toward their own support; *d*, the absolute need of permanent custody for a large class of them, so that they may not beget children suffering from neuroses more marked than those of their parents.

This Board must use the public press daily, weekly and monthly, unceasingly and emphatically. If Virginia is to have practical, prompt and efficient provisions for these mental deficients, these one or two live and enthusiastic men and women are all that are needed if they will begin today. Then in five years, more can be accomplished than has ever before been done in the same length of time.

But if you are all going to follow the usual routine, if you say "Yes, yes," "It should be done," "I believe every word of it," "I hope someone will take it up, but I have no time," then your time is wasted, and in ten or fifteen years you will be about where you are now.

What is needed now is action, vigorous and effective. Talk is cheap, and therefore worth about what it costs, but deeds are the fruits, and verily "By their fruits shall ye know them."

MODERN IDEALS OF EDUCATION APPLIED TO THE TRAINING OF MENTAL DEFECTIVES

BY MRS. M. C. DUNPHY, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CHILDREN'S INSTITUTIONS, RANDALL'S ISLAND, NEW YORK CITY

Among the many problems of modern sociology, none presents a broader field of interest than that of training, developing and disposing satisfactorily of the mentally deficient—those who come into life so inadequately equipped, both mentally and physically, to meet the struggle for existence. Cen-

turies ago, their fate was decided by "the survival of the fittest." In the Middle Ages when more humane feelings prevailed, defectives were treated with respect and consideration, being looked upon as creatures afflicted by God, but no effort was made to elevate or educate them, so they remained burdens on charity all their days.

With the spread of the great humanitarian movements of the last century over all the civilized world and the increasing sense of the responsibility of the state towards its individual members, began, also, the first systematic endeavors to ameliorate the conditions of these neglected wards of society.

The efforts of the pioneer educators and philanthropists, who advocated the training and development of defectives, have reached a point of success scarcely dreamed of by those earnest workers in the cause of human progress. Step by step, interest in this branch of social enterprise has grown until now the sympathy of all those striving for the betterment of humanity has been aroused on behalf of these innocent unfortunates, and any scheme that can further their welfare or render their conditions less dependent, meets with instant and enthusiastic support.

Tangible evidence of this interest and sympathy are met with on every side in the schools and institutions established for the care, education and manual training of atypical children. There they may be classified according to their varying degrees of mental ability and then carefully developed along the lines of modern educational thought in the esthetic and utilitarian branches which they are capable of assimilating.

The general ideal of educational aim at the present day is to render the individual socially efficient and thereby enable him to adjust himself satisfactorily to his environment. The question naturally arises, is it possible to realize even in a small measure, these ideals of education with the atypical child?

To a limited degree and under certain well-defined conditions, we may answer yes to the above query. In other words, we can render the defective socially efficient and comparatively self-reliant, provided we confine his efforts at usefulness within the sphere of a community of his mental equals. It would be futile to assert that any amount of training will sufficiently de-

velop defectives to a point of usefulness that will enable them to cope with the problems of the world at large, and it would be manifestly unjust to exact from him the same measure of mental poise demanded of the normal human being.

In my judgment, based upon years of experience, the conditions upon which we can claim to approach the ideals of modern educational aim in dealing with defectives are as follows:

First—The segregation of these children in a school or institution devoted to their special needs, where they may be properly classified and brought under judicious, well-regulated control.

Secondly—That the training given them there should rest on a definite, practical basis, as it is only by constant employment in some congenial field of useful occupation that an economic return for the time, care and expense necessary to develop defectives to a point of usefulness can be obtained from them.

Thirdly—That the teaching of these children be confided to teachers experienced in the best ways and methods of arousing and holding their attention. Any loss of time is to be avoided, if possible, as with defectives mental growth is not the indefinite life-long process it is with normal beings and every moment of the period of mental receptivity must be utilized if we are to make any real, definite impressions on their feeble brains.

To revert to the first condition for successful application of modern principles to the development of the atypical child—the segregation of this class should be made while the child is in its earliest years, as in the subsequent development of the individual the significance of these early years cannot be overestimated. This is the time when the mental and physical organism can best be studied and classified and the natural activities be diverted into the proper channels. Children of this type should be kept under careful supervision day and night or they form habits which later on are ineradicable. Moral instincts are almost always lacking in the mentally deficient, so even in the ordinary intercourse of home and social life they are a menace to the welfare of the community.

This unfortunate tendency, coupled with the undesirable surroundings in many of their homes and the danger of the unrestrained play of the streets, tends to nullify any ethical lessons or impressions gained by a few hours in school. Therefore, in the interest of the public weal as well as for their own sakes, it is of paramount importance that atypical children be prevented from coming in contact with those of normal minds, in order that their abnormal personality may not react unfavorably upon the latter.

Let the defective child be brought under the influences of right thinking, careful discipline and moral control during the period of plasticity and there is a real opportunity to develop and foster whatever good inclinations or latent abilities he may possess.

This plastic period is the time in which to help the child to gain control of the motor activities. If he has systematic physical exercises from the beginning—preferably the natural sports of children, running, leaping, swimming and ball playing, combined of course with special drills and gymnastics adapted to give him the requisite motor control, much of the awkwardness which distinguishes defectives as a class may be obviated. Through the games he gains not only robust physical organism, but derives real ethical culture from the lessons of fair play, give and take, and social reinforcement which they inculcate. There is no means by which a child can more readily absorb the necessary principles of subordination, self-control and obedience than in the ranks of the ball team or similar association for the purpose of sport.

Many defects of sight, hearing, articulation and carriage are easily corrected during this period, but they offer stubborn resistance to treatment later on. Then, too, in the very early years, while the defective child is in the kindergarten, the inner activity of the feeble brain can be stimulated by many and varied devices to arouse his interest and quicken his powers of observation. The kindergarten process of unfolding and awakening the dawning intellect is of inestimable value in directing the first groping mental efforts of the defective. The discipline, though of the mildest, tends to control and modify the natural impulses while at the same time allowing full play to the

activities of childhood. The training of voice, manner, habits of respect and obedience go hand in hand with the increasing mental growth through the medium of games and occupations. This being also the imitative stage of growth in every child, when he unconsciously copies the manners, language and modes of life of his neighborhood and home surroundings, it can readily be seen how imperative it is that the environment during these years should be of a quality likely to react favorably upon his later development.

That all mental work should be of short duration and varied by manual exercise is an axiom of modern educational methods for the *normal child*, and is doubly necessary with the restless, nervous defective. There must inevitably be a lack of creative power and spontaneity of thought and expression on his part, but in the cheerful, bright surroundings of the up-to-date schoolroom, helped by the sympathy and understanding of the experienced teacher, it is quite possible to organize and amplify to a large extent the ideas gained in the previous years and to develop successfully the individual pupil along the lines of his natural inclinations.

While there must be discipline in the school for defectives, there can be no hard and fast curriculum of work prescribed as the mind of each pupil has a different rate of growth and develops through a different avenue of mental activity.

At this point in the child's development we must take into consideration the second condition for successful work with this class, namely: The utilitarian aim in the training of the atypical being, in order that he may not continue to be an entirely useless burden on society.

While still under school instruction and learning the useful branches of manual class-work, sloyd, iron work, bench work, painting, etc., the defective should also be instructed in the elements of some congenial form of industrial employment. This must be in line with the natural bent of the individual, a matter which is not difficult to determine if the child has been under supervision for years. It is the first necessary step to be taken towards making him a self-respecting member of a colony of fellow workers. Learning a trade and feeling himself of use to others is the best way to impress him with

the dignity of labor and the social interdependence of workers in all walks of life. Those in charge should be ever on the alert to discover the inclinations or desire in special directions of those in their care.

One child shows a marked interest in nature work, earth study, *etc.* Encourage him to persevere in these branches and later on it will be easy to initiate him into the duties of gardening and farming. Another displays a talent for color. This can be turned to practical account by teaching him house-painting, decorating, *etc.*

Many mental defectives have a decided musical ability, and this can be used to further the welfare of the institution by having them taught to play in a band or orchestra. This provides amusement for the other inmates and helps to promote their happiness and contentment, for music in any form is a delight to them, besides its undoubted value as an agent in calming and soothing their excitable nerves. The readiness with which the boys on Randall's Island mastered the intricacies of instrumental music and the success which has attended the establishment of our band makes me confident that this branch of useful endeavor is one that can be made to appeal to a large percentage of the feeble-minded.

As to the third condition necessary to the effective training of defectives—the careful selection of teachers for the work—I can scarcely lay enough stress on this point. Many teachers whose efforts with normal children are most satisfactory find it impossible to adapt themselves to the needs of the defective schoolroom. Their patience is soon overtaxed by the slow mental processes and the nervous physical organism of the atypical child and they often find that the physical strain of contact with this class is too great a drain on their own nerve power. It requires no small amount of patience, skill and intuition on the part of a teacher to find just the factors in the educational process that make a real appeal to the struggling atom of mental activity imprisoned in the brain of the defective. Above all, it is only the experience of years that gives a teacher of defectives the true insight into ways and means by which the individual—(for it is as individuals

and not as a class that pupils in such a school must be regarded)— under her charge can be reached and benefited.

Refinement of manner and feeling are almost as necessary as intellectual qualifications for the teacher of defectives, as it is impossible to overestimate the immense influence of the personality of their superiors to this class. The classes should be small in numbers as it is impossible to do justice to these children if they are to be treated en masse, besides which, it is altogether too severe a strain to put upon the physical and mental organism of the teacher.

A very cursory review of the points presented in this paper will make apparent the importance of what I stated was the first condition in making the training of defectives of effective value to society, namely: That they be segregated permanently from society, and in conclusion I wish to add a few more remarks upon this basic necessity.

It must be distinctly understood that there is no hope of curing mental deficiency. It is not like lunacy, a case of brain affection as liable to respond to treatment as any physical ailment. It is an ill that is beyond the skill of medicine. No surgeon can supply the missing brain center or create an intellect any more than he can produce sight through an artificial eye. Weak sight may be helped by glasses of varying power. Weak brains can be stimulated to mental endeavor, but a person born without eyes cannot be made to see, nor can a mental defective be given brain power and brought to the level of the normally intelligent being.

Realizing this, can it be deemed wise, either for society or the defective himself, to turn him loose after some years of training to make his fight for existence on his own behalf? No matter how seemingly clever he may have become in his chosen line of activity, would it be reasonable to expect him to compete successfully with skilled labor? No amount of moral training during his school life can render him capable of judging points of morality for himself or make him proof against temptations to which his natural tendencies incline him to yield. The end will almost inevitably be that he will drift back into the care of the state, but through the gates of crime. To avoid this as an economic measure and as a safeguard to

public morality, the state should see that the defective, on passing school age, should be transferred to a home or colony wherein he can prove his social efficiency by being of use to others and himself.

He is a member of a community of his equals, a sharer in a democracy and a help instead of a menace to society at large. The economic return from a defective must necessarily be very small, yet a colony for feeble-minded of various grades can be made partially, if not entirely, self-supporting. That is to say, outside the cost of establishment and direction, the inmates can be trained to do most of the labor connected with its maintenance. The highest grades of defective boys, under supervision, of course, can take care of the farming, dairy work, gardening, shop-work, carpentering, etc., while the girls of similar grades can be employed in housework, laundry, serving-room and kitchen, most of them being very apt at these branches of industrial work. The lower grades can do easier forms of the different employments, raking the grounds, carrying clothes, grading walks, etc. In these colonies a strict classification of the varying degrees of mentality should be insisted upon, as contact with the lower grades will rapidly sweep away the fruits of the years spent in training the educable feeble-minded for a useful sphere in life, as unfortunately this type of being retrogrades much more rapidly than he advances. After the eighteenth year he receives but few new mental impressions and, if removed from careful supervision or forced to associate intimately with defectives of a lower grade, he speedily reverts to his original instincts and sinks to the level of those around him.

But, if a certain classification be maintained, the different classes of mental defectives may be associated in different sections or homes in the same colony. On Randall's Island we have defectives of every type, from idiots to high grade mental defectives, but the contact between the different classes is of the most superficial. They meet at church entertainments and outdoor sports, but never come in close contact with each other.

That these colonies, once established, would prove a real boon there is no reason to doubt, and New York is now pre-

paring to follow the lead set by Massachusetts at Templeton and inaugurate a farm colony for all classes of mental defectives at Haverstraw, N. Y.

On Randall's Island we have instituted, to a certain degree, the system prevailing at Templeton, that is, on leaving school the boys and girls are given some definite manual employment and much of the work in the shops, such as basket-making, carpet and rug weaving, dressmaking and tailoring, etc., is performed by them, as well as the housework in the different buildings and considerable work on the grounds.

We shall probably not have to wait long to see each State with its farm colony for defectives organized, established and working in harmony with modern progressive thought toward the aim of all development—efficiency—and we shall then find that these ideals of social usefulness and true democracy may be at last realized by these beings—the most really dependent of all the wards of the State.

CUSTODIAL CARE

BY ALEXANDER JOHNSON, SECRETARY NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

The custodial care of defectives can be looked at from several sides. The strongest fact that demands such care, is, that of all the traits of character or condition that pass from parent to child, the condition which we call feeble-mindedness is the most certain to be transmitted. No feeble-minded mother will ever have a child absolutely normal in every respect. The neuroses are all connected—insanity, epilepsy, idiocy, feeble-mindedness and many others.. Usually in families where one parent or both are afflicted, every member will have some taint. One may be deaf, another insane, another epileptic, another feeble-minded, another criminal; the weak tendency has come down to them, and it shows in one form or another. So whatever else happens to the feeble-minded and idiotic and epileptic, the one thing of parentage must not happen to them. The only just and humane and civilized way of stopping the trans-

mission of defectiveness is by segregation. These people should be taken by themselves and kept in quiet, peaceful, industrious communities, where they shall have everything that other villagers enjoy except the joys and sorrows of married life and the pleasure of voting for the governor and the president. There should be safe, permanent, custodial care of all those who are so far degenerate that their unhindered natural increase would result in lowering the average quality of manhood and womanhood of the State.

We use the term "feeble-minded" as a generic term, to indicate all the mentally defective who are not insane; the idiotic of all grades, the imbecile, the idio-imbecile, etc. Taking these all together from the high-grade imbeciles to the low-grade idiots, it is my profound belief, after ten years of personal experience with them, that not less than fifty per cent. can be made entirely self-supporting, and they will be all the happier if they are made so. To the remainder some useful work can be given, and only a comparatively small number is beyond the hope of usefulness.

I know a farm of near four hundred acres upon which was set out a peach orchard a few years ago. Last year there were gathered from that orchard, by feeble-minded boys, nearly five hundred bushels of peaches. On this same farm there is a brickyard. They very rarely have a failure of the brick crop even though apples and peaches are uncertain. That brickyard employs two strong-minded men and from twenty-five to thirty feeble-minded boys, ranging in capacity from idiots who can't talk, but who can shovel clay into a wagon, to high-grade imbecile boys, who are so nearly normal that you have to talk with them ten or fifteen minutes before you find out that they are not all there in the upper story. All these have their regular tasks in the brickyard. The regular output of the yard is a million bricks per season. These bricks are all made by feeble-minded laborers. They are worth five dollars a thousand, and it costs about two dollars a thousand to make them; that is, the wages of the men and the gasoline used in the engine, the wood for burning, the value of the work of the teams and the pay of the boys, amount to about two dollars a thousand. This leaves a profit to the State of three

dollars per thousand, or three thousand dollars for the year's output of brick. This is not allowing for the wear and tear of the superintendent's gray matter, nor of the plant. But I suppose that plant is good for at least twenty years or more. We will take off twenty per cent., or six hundred dollars, discount for the depreciation of the plant. The gross cost of keeping the boys on the farm was a hundred and ten dollars per capita. When we deduct the value of the milk, the hay, the apples, the potatoes, the cabbages, and tomatoes, etc., raised on the farm and sent down to the parent institution the net cost of the keep of these boys to the state was less than seventy dollars each per annum. That included about a hundred and twenty boys, of whom thirty were high-grade imbeciles, about the same number middle grade, and about forty of the idiotic type knowing next to nothing. Those twenty-seven brickyard boys earned twenty-four hundred dollars, and cost the state less than seventy apiece for a year. They earned that in seven months.

The above facts give ground for another argument for permanent care, the economic argument. There is no reason why the majority of feeble-minded people should cost the State of Virginia anything at all, after you once get them trained. A training school will be expensive. It will cost more per capita than a common school. But hospitals are expensive, too. And the great custodial class, those who are able to do something, will be in the majority. So much for the dollars and cents. You may apply the same thing, with changes, to the manufacture of shoes and clothing, and to a great many other industries. Usually this output is confined to the institution itself, and the material does not go out into the world.

What other occupations are there? I think the best of all occupations for the trained graduate is the care of the helpless ones.

(The speaker then gave a number of instances illustrating the method of employing the higher and middle grade feeble-minded in the care of the lower grade and of the smaller children.)

Such instances as these and many others which I might tell

you of, show how sensible and just is the plan of segregation and employment. It is not only economical for the State, it is infinitely the best for the happiness and the welfare of those cared for. It is the thing to do for the feeble-minded—get them out of the big world where they have such a hard time because they are not like other folks. They are ignorant and irresponsible. It is too much to ask of them that they shall be virtuous, because virtue demands strength. We must be content if we can keep them innocent, as little children are innocent, even though they do many things which would be wicked if done by a responsible adult. To be virtuous you must consciously reject vice and choose virtue. To demand that a person who is too weak to be more than innocent shall be virtuous, or else be ruined forever, is a hard and cruel thing. We ought not to permit it to happen to these feeble-minded children. They are our little ones. Did you ever think who is "the little one?" It is the individual with whom you come in contact who is younger, weaker, or in any way less self-reliant than yourself. That one is, to you, one of the little ones, concerning whom the Master said it was better for us to have a mill-stone around our necks and to be cast into the depths of the sea, than that we should cause one of these little ones to offend, or that we should offend one of these little ones. And when we as a people either by laws or the absence of laws, expose these little ones to wrong and shame, we are incurring that condemnation. So it behooves us to think about it, whether we will allow our commonwealth to go on neglecting these people, or whether we will protect the helpless and feeble and degenerate. The attitude of the state should be that of a good and loving mother to them. Virginia, the mother of presidents, the mother of states, Virginia should be a leader in these things. It should not be possible to say of this fair commonwealth that it has such a sore spot as the neglect of a large number of helpless, irresponsible innocents who deserve and demand your loving care and protection.

Children

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY MISS FRANCES GREELY CURTIS, MEMBER OF THE MASSACHUSETTS STATE BOARD OF CHARITY, CHAIRMAN

The Committee on Children makes no formal report, but it presents the following proposition, which it hopes to demonstrate in the six meetings assigned to it.

This proposition is that all good child-saving work is really educational, in the broadest sense of the word, and therefore should be tried and tested by educational, as well as charitable, standards.

The work of caring for children, whether in an orphan asylum, a reform school, in the juvenile court, or in a family home, consists in training and fitting them for their place in the world. It is work for the future, even for the long future, and has the advantage over most charitable work, of growing and developing with the growth of the educational forces of the country.

To make independent, honest, high-minded American citizens is the aim alike of the public schools and of child-saving agencies.

It means a great deal that names are being changed, Home, or Asylum, or Refuge, to Industrial School, Farm School, even Hospital School,—the point of view of managers and public has undergone a wonderful change.

Let us therefore test ourselves and our work by our success in, or at all events, towards, developing good citizens and honorable heads of families, and let us see to it that the republic takes no harm from neglecting the possibilities of growth of its less normal younger members.

Why we need the best possible Child Labor Law, the most intelligent Juvenile Court work, the greatest helpfulness from Boys' Clubs, the ideal Institution, the perfect Family Home,

is because future citizens must be given those opportunities for a healthy normal life which they need, and which they have not enjoyed.

The number of activities testifies to the varied needs of the children, for every child presents a new problem; one of the peculiar satisfactions in this work is the fact that it never comes to an end.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

BY PROF. W. H. HAND OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA

I deem it a high privilege to be asked to speak to such a gathering as this, and I sincerely wish that I could feel that I have for you a message worthy of the occasion. I sometimes fear that the average American fails to appreciate his good fortune to live in a land like ours. I do not arrogate to ourselves that silly claim that our land is better than any other, or all others, but America is another word for opportunity, and opportunity is all that a virile, vigorous and virtuous people need. What a country may we not have with the strength, the wisdom, the earnestness, and the experience of the best men and women of every type and vocation yoked in harmony working out the destinies of a nation! How inspiring it is to see our great captains with one hand guiding our marvelous material prosperity, and with the other hand relieving suffering and destitution, pointing humanity to better living, and best of all training the young in habits of industry, civic order, and righteousness—preparing them for service in a great democracy!

In any form of monarchy the primary object of education has been to make good, intelligent, loyal subjects. In a democracy, such as ours, the primary object of education is to make good, intelligent, loyal sovereigns. We are admittedly making "the most stupendous experiment in government" that the world has ever seen. We are making of every man a citizen, clothing him with the power to make and to administer the laws of a great nation, and to direct and control all the forces

and resources of our institutional life. To cope successfully with so gigantic a problem requires intelligence and training of the highest order known to men. If our government is to endure, if it is to achieve that eminence among the powers of the earth to which we pledge our faith, it must secure to itself an intelligent, prosperous and orderly citizenship. Intelligence and virtue lie at the very foundation of any people's greatness; intelligent and virtuous citizens are a state's fundamental asset, and the state which has the largest percentage of illiteracy has relatively the smallest percentage of effective citizens.

It would be exceedingly difficult to reduce the virtues of any two peoples to a common denominator, and no less difficult to do so with the native intelligence of any two peoples, but it is not difficult to measure the illiteracy of any people, to discover if it can be reduced or removed, and to realize the results of its removal. Let us look at our illiteracy and analyze it. Coming from the South, I ask the attention of the South, where we have persistently refused to enact such compulsory attendance laws as have been enacted by practically every other state in the Union, and by the majority of the leading cultured nations of the world. These other states and countries have had compulsory laws long enough to test their efficiency and their value. Let us compare results, confining ourselves to that part of the population which furnishes the safest standard—the native whites.

Table A.—Native white illiterates over 10 years of age:

North Atlantic Division, (all under compulsory laws)...1.6%
North Central Division, (all under compulsory laws).... 2.3%
Western Division, (all under compulsory laws)..... 2.7%
South Atlantic Division, (all but three without compulsory laws*) 11.4%
South Central Division, (nearly all without compulsory law) 11.2%
Southern States alone, (all without compulsory laws) 959,799 or 12.4%

*See foot note on next page.

Table B.—Showing the rank of each Southern State in the percentage of illiteracy of native whites 10 years of age and over:

Texas (highest in rank)	35th	Kentucky	43rd
Mississippi	37th	South Carolina	44th
Florida	38th	Tennessee	46th
Virginia	40th	Alabama	47th
Arkansas	41st	Louisiana	48th
Georgia	42nd	*North Carolina	49th

Table C.—Native whites of the voting age; percentage of illiteracy:

North Atlantic Division	2.1%	
North Central Disivion	3.5%	
Western Division	2.8%	
South Atlantic Division	12.2%	
South Central Division	11.5%	
Southern States alone	12.2%	or 307,236 persons.
France	4.7	(male adults.)
England	3.0	(male and female adults.)
Scotland	2.4	(male and female adults.)
German Empire	.5	(male adults.)

These figures can have but one meaning—that compulsory education reduces illiteracy, and that the South sorely needs to have her illiteracy reduced. No sound-thinking man would for a moment claim that education, in the common acceptation of that term, is a panacea for political and social ills, nor can it be said that an illiterate man is necessarily not a good citizen. But in a democracy where manhood suffrage prevails, national life must suffer when 12 per cent. of the voting population is unable to read even the names printed upon the ballots which they are supposed to cast intelligently for the government of the state. Ignorance stands for narrowness, bigotry, selfishness and stagnation; intelligence stands for liberty, liberality, tolerance, sympathy and growth.

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* North Carolina has recently passed a local option compulsory law, but it is so far confined to small areas, and has been in operation too short a time to measure results.

The claim is repeatedly made that the younger generation of whites in the South is going to school. That is not true. Statistics show that in 1900 the South Atlantic States had 2,472,-895 white children between the ages of 5 and 20 years. The school attendance for the same year shows 1,176,976 white children in school, or more children out of school than were in school. Of course allowance must be made for a considerable number between 5 and 6 not entitled to enter the public schools. The same statistics show that the southern states had 262,590 native white illiterates between the ages of 10 and 19, Virginia alone contributing 23,108, while Ohio has but 4,083, and Minnesota but 242.

The opponents of compulsory education tell us that our people will send their children to school without being compelled to do so, if they are only shown their duty and their obligation to their children. For nearly twenty years our ablest and safest leaders, men and women, have been tireless in their efforts to get the children of the South into the schools. Yet more than 25 per cent. of the native white children between 10 and 14, that crucial age, are not in school at all.

I know that there are among us many who contend that the educational conditions in the South are subjects for congratulation. I yield to no one in the matter of pride over what the South has done in the past forty years. To me it is a source of constant delight to see and hear the many reports of excellent educational progress in the southern states. Increased taxation for schools, new buildings, larger equipment, longer school terms, and better paid teachers occupy enviable places in all these pictures. But how many of these reports dare to mention a substantial decrease in illiteracy? Increased enrollment and increased attendance do not necessarily prove decreased illiteracy. The increased enrollment and the increased attendance do not always keep pace with the increase in population. The truth is that in some of the southern states the total white illiteracy has remained practically unchanged for thirty years. Of what value are all your taxes, and your elegant school buildings, and your improved schools to your thousands of boys and girls who never enter a school?

Southern people, are we willing to permit 25 per cent. of

young white boys and girls to grow up in the bondage of illiteracy? Can we afford to trust 262,590 illiterate boys and girls at the age of 19 out into a world enriched by the progress in the arts and sciences reaching back over a century itself rich in discoveries and inventions? How can we expect them to win with untrained hands and vagrant minds? Poverty and stress of war can no longer be urged as a palliative for the illiteracy of the children who ought to be in school today. Many of these children are the descendents of Walter Page's *forgotten men.* They became the *neglected mass;* and the neglected mass has in turn become the *indifferent mass.* When any considerable number of people in a state become indifferent to the intellectual, and moral, and social conditions of themselves and their offspring, the situation becomes alarming, for illiteracy, like every other evil, tends toward perpetuating itself.

Has the state the right to compel a child to go to school? What is the answer to this question? Years ago we accepted, without much question, the doctrine that popular education is necessary to the growth and permanence of our republican institutions.

Since all classes of our heterogeneous society are active factors, the state maintains schools for all the children of all the people. The schools exist primarily for the benefit of the state, rather than for the benefit of the individual. The state seeks to make every citizen intelligent and serviceable. The state compels the rich man to pay taxes to support the schools, not because he owes the poor man's child an education, but because the state needs the intelligent services of that child. The schools are democratized by compelling the rich and the poor alike to pay taxes according to their ability, for something necessary to all.

When the state has provided schools for all the children, it has performed only a part of its duty. If a school tax is justifiable on the ground that popular education is a necessity, it follows that compulsory attendance is also justifiable. The state has no right to levy and collect taxes for a specific purpose, and then permit that purpose to be defeated at the hands of an indifferent or selfish parent. In this connection we

hear much about the sacred rights and personal privileges of the parent who neglects or refuses to send his child to school. No one regrets more than I do the tendency to shift from the home those functions which properly belong there. One of those functions is to train the children for their duties and responsibilities in the social organism. Society itself is imperilled whenever its members are unfitted. One of the essentials of fitness is what we call education. Therefore, whenever the home refuses or neglects to prepare the child for society, it is not only the privilege, but the duty of the state to see that the child is fitted for his part. Argument against the right of the state to send a child to school is specious and superficial. Those who make such argument would not for one moment deny the right of the state to compel the parent to feed and clothe his child, or to compel him to fight for his country, and to shoot him if he deserted. The state has the right to carry the law-breaking child to the reformatory or the jail to protect society. Has not the state as much right to carry the child to the school house to save him from the reformatory or the jail, and to train him to benefit society? Those who deny the right of the state to compel the parent to send his child to school are too frequently the offending parents themselves, or those who fear unpopularity at the hands of the voting mob.

When the state compels the parent to send his child to school, it is simply compelling the parent to put the child in possession of his own rightful inheritance. In a narrow sense that inheritance is his right to the benefit of what the state has collected and set apart for him, in a wider and truer sense it means his opportunity to make of himself all that his God-given abilities will permit him to become, in a still wider sense it is his becoming fitted to take his place in the state to perform the sacred duties of an intelligent citizen in the broadest meaning of that term.

Objection is often made that compulsory attendance would work hardships in the homes of the poor. Is it not a fact that the poor child is the very one who most needs the aid of the state to bring him into possession of his own? He it is who must soon face the complexities of modern life, and the insistent demands of citizenship with none of the advantages common to

birth or wealth. He is the very one whom the state ought to help, because he himself is helpless. The child of the poor must work, and it is right that he should work, but it is neither right nor humane that he should be forever denied his share in his inheritance in order to be made a bread-winner for a lazy, selfish, unfeeling father, as is so frequently the case.

Over and over we are told that compulsory laws could not be successfully enforced. To my mind that is begging the question. Why not the same skepticism about the enforcement of any other law? The opponents insist that a compulsory law could not be enforced, because the people are not ready for such a law. Would there be any use for this law, or any other law, if all the people were ready and waiting to obey it? Laws are enacted to compel men to do that which they ought to do, but will not do voluntarily. Tens of thousands of people in America are not obeying the Ten Commandments. Are we to justify this disobedience on the ground that the people are not quite ready for the Decalog? Or is the Decalog a piece of unwise and premature legislation, because some of us do not obey it? Will any law enforce itself? Will any law be enforced until an honest effort has been made to do so? And what is meant by successful enforcement? Must the enforcement of a law be called unsuccessful so long as it is violated by any one? In every civilized land there is law against homicide. There are many violations of that law. Shall we say that the law is not a success? Should we repeal the law until violations of it cease?

It is further argued that a child forced to attend school will derive but little benefit from the school. Those who argue thus forget that the compulsion is not in bringing to school the unwilling child, but in forcing an indifferent, selfish, heartless parent to let his child go to school.

Another contention is that compulsory laws could not be enforced without truant officers, and that such officers must be paid out of the school funds. I at once admit the necessity of a truant officer, and that he must be paid. The city of Richmond would no doubt save thousands of dollars every year in the way of salaries, if it would dismiss its policemen, its constables and its detectives. But these officers are necessary to

perform for the people services more valuable than the amount of their salaries. So it is with the truant officer.

In some sections of the South serious objection is made to compulsory attendance by sincere, but short-sighted people on the ground that a compulsory law would enforce an increased attendance of the negro children as well as the white children. Such objection has in it several elements of weakness. Those who offer the negro as an objection overlook the fact that the negro parent needs such a law less than the white parent needs it. Be it said to our shame that the negro is sending his child to school with an eagerness that challenges our admiration. Considering the negro's opportunity he is sending his child to school well, and throughout the South the percentage of illiteracy among the negroes is decreasing more rapidly than among the whites.

The weakness of the main argument against compulsory attendance on account of the negro is truly pathetic. Is it wise or expedient to permit thousands of our white boys and girls to grow up in ignorance, lest in forcing them to school we should awaken the aspirations of the negro child? Shall we remain ignorant in order to encourage him to remain ignorant? Is it better for white and black to remain ignorant than to have white and black made intelligent? The only logical conclusion to such argument is that an ignorant white man can compete successfully with an ignorant negro, but that an educated white man cannot compete with an educated negro. Then what becomes of our boasted superiority of the white man? Has the white man so nearly reached the zenith of his possibilities that further education will not keep him well in advance of the ambitious negro? But we are reminded that the increased attendance of the negro means additional weight to the present white man's burden. I freely admit this, but it must be remembered that ignorance is the heaviest burden which the whites of the south have borne during the past forty years. I know only too well what that burden is today. Our very existence is wrapped up in this question. No matter how great was the blunder, to him and to us, in making the negro a citizen without one day's preparation, no matter how inferior a citizen he has been in the past, no matter how unsatisfactory

have been the results of his schooling, wisdom and prudence bid us look resolutely toward the future.

Not only is it the duty of the state to maintain schools for the children, and to require them to attend the schools, but it is the imperative duty of the state to provide the right kind of schools, and the right kind of education. Ideal schools and bonuses offered for good attendance will never, in my opinion, make a school system so alluring as to bring into the schools the children of grasping, heartless parents. The children of such parents are in bondage—the bondage of ignorance and indifference and greed and stifling cupidity. Yet it is perfectly reasonable to say that our schools would be better attended, if they were more efficient. By efficiency I mean adaptation to the actual needs of the pupils. The schools of the people, especially above the primary grades, are the schools of the middle ages, and need reconstruction, readjustment and rearticulation to meet the demands of the 20th century conditions and ideals. Perhaps the greatest defect in our schools is their failure to inculcate a taste and appreciation for work. To me it is no wonder that the ignorant laboring man who refuses to send his child to school claims that he prefers to teach his child to work, because his child must work when he leaves school. That man feels that his child would not have instilled into him any love for toil.

Men of the South, it is high time to end our specious arguments, to quit our scholastic quibbling, and throw aside our political sophistries. We know the situation; we know the facts; we ought to know our duty.

WHY THE CHILDREN ARE IN THE FACTORY

BY MISS JEAN M. GORDON, FACTORY INSPECTOR, LOUISIANA

It seems incredible that, in this age, it should be necessary for men and women to leave their homes and private businesses, to come together to devise ways and means to awaken the consciences of other men and women, and make them feel their responsibility towards little children.

George Eliot conveys the idea somewhere in her writings, if one is sitting in a room and sees a piece of bric-a-brac about to fall, instinctively the hand is put forth to try to catch it. And it does seem that every one would put forth a hand to save the little ones; but that this is not done is evidenced by the gathering of men and women to try to solve this vexing, disheartening problem.

The most potent reason, in my opinion, why the children are in the factory is our school system. Our present method of instruction, particularly for the boys between eight and twelve, does not interest the children. This is due to two causes; the overcrowded condition of the school rooms, especially in the middle grades, which makes it impossible for the teacher to give personal attention to the less intelligent children, and the alarming number of our children who are defective in sight, hearing, or what is even more prevalent and distressing, the debilitating effects of the adenoid growth, which saps the vitality and acquiring power to an incredible degree.

These defective children soon fall behind in their studies—the teacher has not the time to give them any personal attention or encouragement. They become discouraged and wish to leave school. The teacher sees the standard of her year's work greatly lowered through these so-called stupid children, and she encourages the little ones to leave. You must not blame the teacher, rather blame the niggardly appropriations and the lack of a true appreciation of the great value of education as demonstrated by our southern lawmakers on this question of education.

DEMAND FOR EDUCATION

Tell me the South is too poor to educate her children and I tell you we are too poor not to educate them. If we are poor, it is because we have been ignorant—ignorant of the value of our great forests and streams, our mines and franchises which we sold to northern capital. The South must have compulsory industrial education and have it now,—not ten years hence when the boy and girl of to-day have gotten away from us. If need be, stop every other improvement, such as paving and building magnificent court and jail houses. You do not need fine school buildings. Some of the finest men and women this country has

ever known were educated in log-cabins. Above all you want the teacher who has been taught how to teach, who feels her responsibility towards the piece of putty placed in her hands. It is the teacher who will make this America of ours what it should be, not the business man nor the politician.

In Wyoming, one of the states where women are just as good as men on election day, the state has said there shall be no such thing as ignorance—it is too costly; therefore, if there is one child on a mountain top too far from the district school to attend regularly, a teacher is sent to live in the home of that child for ten months, and is paid for the entire twelve months. The state recognizes the right of the child to an education, and of the teacher to a living wage. In the South, we expect a woman to go into a state of coma two or three months of each year, as we pay only for the months she actually works.

And here let me sound my note of warning to those of us who fear that under compulsory education laws the negro child will be educated. As far as my experience goes, I have yet to find a Jew or a negro child in a mill, factory or department store. They are at school, well nourished, playing out in our glorious southern sunlight, waxing strong and fat; it is only your white-faced, sunken-chested, curved-backed little Christians who are in the mills and department stores.

The public school system must become an adjunct to the home—it must help the busy housewife, who no longer has a yard for her children to play in, but must turn them into the streets while she fulfills the many duties of the position she holds as wife, mother, housemaid, cook, laundress, seamstress, nurse. This busy woman has a hard time keeping up with the boy or girl of ten or twelve who, filled with the spirit natural to childhood, wants to be "doing something." The average mother fears the influences of the street and so consents to the child's entering the factory, thinking he is safer within its four walls. Never was there a greater mistake, for all the objections which can be urged against the street—bad companionship, dust, bad language and disease—prevail in the factory, with the added nervous strain of the work and the constant standing from ten to twelve hours each day. Therefore, our schools must arrange for the defective child, the backward child and, the saddest of all

the child of parents who have not yet learned the value of education! By diversified work, directed play and proper supervision, the school must help the mother raise her child.

If the churches of this country really wish to be a vivifying, dynamic force in our daily life, they must awaken to the fact that they have not taken their share in the great humanitarian movements of the day. These have grown up outside the church. The ministers and church men and women must make their religion work—they cannot afford to keep it as they do their best clothes, only to be used on Sunday. The mill woman who knows she is overworked and underpaid is not apt to feel kindly towards a religion which preaches justice and equality for all, when she sees the men and women who fatten off her day's labors exalted to the high places..

PARENTAL RESPONSIBILITY

Another reason why the children are at work is the independence which comes, especially to the boy, from the possession of what seems to them a great deal of money, and also the freedom from home surveillance.

I put one boy of nine years out of a department store, whose mother told me he left home at 6:30 a. m., on a breakfast of coffee and bread, taking with him a half loaf of bread for his lunch and a nickel with which he bought a cup of coffee at a bar-room. As he lived too far from the night-school to return home for dinner, he played with other boys similarly situated, until eight o'clock, when they went to school, reaching home at ten o'clock. Think of a child away from home nearly sixteen hours a day—away from all home influence, all parental control! We do much talking about home influence but we do very little work towards securing it.

The boys, also, use the excuse of going to night-school as a cover to their prowling around the haunts of vice and sin in our large cities. Night-schools for children under sixteen years of age should be forbidden by law. I have no patience with any system of economics, or civilization, or Christianity, which permits to exist a condition which deprives a boy or girl of the inalienable right of an American subject, the right to a free, daylight education! There is no more pitiful sight than a lot

of tired little brains and bodies bending over spelling books and sums, when they should be in bed.

The United States Supreme Court has just decided by unanimous vote, that the states have the right to legislate in favor of women and children as to their working hours, because woman is the race, and without strong, capable mothers the race becomes decadent. What chance for proper motherhood has the girl of fourteen who starts working in a factory, knowing nothing of the duties of home-making? The knowledge of cooking and housekeeping and the care of children do not drop down upon a woman by intuition on her wedding day, and there is many a heartburn as well as burnt beefsteak and soggy potato, while she learns these essentials, which should have been part of her public school education.

Ignorant parents, knowing nothing of the value of education, constitute another strong factor in accounting for the children who are in the mills. They see only that silver dollar which Dr. Adler said we have all gazed at so long and steadily that it has hypnotized us. They do not appreciate the evil effects upon the child. Out of five hundred homes visited last summer, in only five did I find it necessary or wise to pay the wage of which I had deprived the family by putting the child out of the factory. Back of nearly every child at work is a lazy, shiftless father or an incompetent mother.

THE DEMAND FOR CHEAP LABOR

Of course, the desire of the manufacturer for cheap labor is a great incentive to the employment of children. Despite their oft-repeated statement that child labor is unprofitable, they continue to drag-net every city, town and hillside for workers. I have never been able to decide why they turn their mills into eleemosynary institutions, unless it be the same spirit which makes them insist that the healthiest occupation in the world for a young child is work in a cotton mill. I have been tempted, after listening to the great advantages of a dust-laden, noisy, ten-to-twelve-hour work-day, to put a sign on our mills saying, "Come all ye weary mothers, bring your fretful, restless babies; here is a restful, quiet, clean, sweet atmosphere, and plenty of sunshine, with which we promise to cure any and all ills!"

I know it will surprise many to learn that the installment system is a large factor in the early employment of children. In gathering this item of knowledge, the value of the woman as an inspector was impressed upon me, for the woman factory inspector notices the household furnishings and can go into the kitchen or wash-shed if need be. Many a child is working to pay the weekly installment of $2.50 on the piano, or the fifty cents on the green plush album or the matting with big, pink roses splashed all over it. No one approves more than I of sweet, attractive homes, and the refining influences of music, but it is paying a heavy price for these little elegancies when the future of a child is weighed against the possession of a green album. The whole principle of child labor is such an extravagant one, I marvel that the great practical American people have permitted it to continue, from a purely commercial standpoint. It is certainly a poor business policy which permits a firm or corporation to get seven or eight years' work out of a child and then turn him out upon the community, to be cared for at public expense through long years of invalidism or criminality. As long as we sit passively, content with present conditions, our civilization will remain a travesty, our much-vaunted prosperity a rebuke, and our Christianity a mockery.

CHILD LABOR AND CITIZENSHIP

BY DR. A. J. McKELWAY, ASSISTANT SECRETARY, NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

The highest exercise of citizenship is the making of laws. Of the three departments of government sometimes one and sometimes another looms larger in the public eye. But it remains true that the executive can only execute and the judicial department only interpret the laws enacted by the legislative department. Among the legislative bodies of this country the senate of the United States stands first. It is supposed to represent the flower of the citizenship of each state. Its powers are extraordinary. No national law can reach the statute books without its sanction. It can override the executive veto. It has the veto power for all appointive positions. It possesses

the treaty-making prerogative. It can determine the fitness of a judge or a president for holding his office.

It has been my fortune to listen to two debates in the United States senate on the simple question of enacting a child labor law for the District of Columbia. There is hardly a better test today of enlightened citizenship than one's attitude toward child labor. On both the occasions mentioned, two of the senators announced themselves as products of the child labor system. The small physical stature of one of them was at least suggestive as to the effects of too early toil upon the body itself. The other murdered the King's English in every paragraph, and is under constant obligation to the grammatical editor of the Congressional Record. He said: "I had to start to earn my own living at nine years of age. Suppose I had been deprived of that privilege. What would be my condition today as compared with what it is?" He went on to announce himself as an employer of child labor. The law of his own state allows the employment of twelve-year-old children without any limitation of the hours or restriction as to night work or factory inspection, and it is understood that the senator avails himself of this privilege to the fullest extent. But the point is that both these inspiring examples of child labor took the wrong view of the question. They contended for the twelve year age limit for the capital of the nation, when thirty-five states have established the fourteen-year age limit. Both regarded the child as primarily a bread-winner. And they succeeded in putting into the bill as it passed the senate the provision that the child of dependent parents should be exempt from the operation of the law, a provision which has been rejected by every state in the Union except South Carolina, Georgia, Arkansas and Washington, and which was lately rejected with scorn by the legislature of this good old state in whose bounds we have met. Considering the fact that these gentlemen have on more than one occasion advertised themselves as examples of child labor and presumably have pointed to themselves with entire satisfaction as superior types of our citizenship, it seems to me that it is only fair to use them in their real significance. Possibly, if they had not been employed at an early age they might not have been able to procure a senatorship. Possibly also the

country might have survived the loss. But, actually, because of their having been products of the child labor system, they have been able to give the sanction of our highest legislative body to the abhorrent doctrine that one of the rights of childhood is the right to be exploited for gain, and that the child who is already handicapped by parental shiftlessness or misfortune shall be further penalized by premature toil, shall be denied the benefits of an education, and that this doctrine, embodied in a law, is a worthy example for the United States senate to set to the state legislatures of the country.

If one's attitude toward child labor and other social problems is a test of good citizenship, I adduce the living proof that child labor itself is not productive of the highest citizenship. It would be idle to deny that men by force of character have overcome the handicap of a want of early training. The question will recur, however, what might they not have been under more favorable circumstances? As I have mentioned two senators in this debate, I should like to quote from a third. Said Senator Gallinger, who introduced the child labor bill already mentioned: "I am not in the habit of alluding to myself, or my early struggles, but it would have been a blessing to me, Mr. President, if I had been kept in school until the age of fourteen years. All through my life I have felt and realized that fact. I do think that the best disposition we can make of children until they are fourteen years of age is to keep them in school."

Now I need not emphasize to this company the importance of good citizenship. I need only refer to the fact that we are citizens of a democracy, and that in a democracy no one liveth to himself; that we are a body which suffers when any member of the body suffers. Moreover, we have a double citizenship. We owe due and proper allegiance both to our state and to the nation. Not only does the majority rule, but a minority may hinder all social progress. Moreover, ignorance is the curse of a democracy, and not alone the ignorance that accompanies illiteracy, but that which is satisfied with a little learning, and feeds on half-baked theories of government.

The ignorance of those who have already attained citizenship cannot be cured. What every state in the Union, what the

nation itself has suffered through an unenlightened suffrage is beyond calculation. We who patriotically glory in the America that is may well hang our heads at the thought of the America that might have been. That we have had some narrow escapes from almost irremedial disaster is certain. That we have had a civil war that was a bloody blunder is history. But when we speak of the childhood of today, we project our thoughts to the citizenship of the morrow. What of the citizens of the future? What great question vital to the well-being of the republic itself may be decided by the vote of the children of the sweatshops of New York, the coal mines of Pennsylvania, the cotton mills of the Carolinas?

There are three institutions that are essential in the building up of our citizenship, the home, the school, the church. My proposition is that child labor is the enemy of all three.

Through the long ages of human history the family as the social unit has been developing motherhood, fatherhood, brotherhood, patriotism, philanthropy. It is one of the commonplaces of social science that child labor disintegrates the family. That very dependence of the child which has been the main instrumentality in the development of the social virtues is changed into unnatural independence. The duty of the father is relegated to the child, that of earning bread. The child becomes an asset instead of an incumbrance. The child in the labor market depresses wages to the child-standard and by competition with the father absolutely prevents the possibility of his efficiency as food-provider. The system perpetuates itself through the resulting poverty and the ignorance that comes from this perversion of childhood to the function of bread-winning. The child, having to fulfill the duties of manhood, feels the right to its privileges, and early marriages with the consequence of degenerate offspring are the rule. The manufacturers of Tennessee and of South Carolina have been most earnest in their effort to forbid these early marriages by law, apparently failing to recognize that child labor itself is the root of the evil that must first be cut. Even before marriage the bread-winning child finding himself necessary to the support of the family, becomes independent of all parental restraint, and the ranks of our criminal class are being constantly re-

cruited from the army of child laborers. I need not before this conference adduce the proof of these statements. They are well-known facts.

The case of the girls is even more pitiable. While the boy grows up ignorant of the duties of citizenship, the girl is without knowledge of the ordinary duties of home-making. In those industries that are cursed with child labor and therefore with long hours and low wages, the marriage of the girl does not take her from her task of bread winning. The duties of wifehood and motherhood are complicated with the unending task of providing food. The children born into such homes must soon, how soon sometimes is almost incredible, add their pittance of wages to the family support. Is not the home, the American home, destroyed?

It has become the fashion lately for the apologists of child labor in the attempt to defend the indefensible, to suggest that the children are at least better off in the factories and mining villages, than they were in their former homes. In the northern states we are asked to consider the pitiable condition of the immigrants before coming to this land of the free, where, with the aid of their children, they can begin to earn a livelihood. In the South, we are invited to look at the mountain cabins from which the supply of labor was drawn to the cotton mills. Edgar Gardner Murphy, whose absence tonight from this program we all regret, has answered that argument in a sentence. Even granting that the condition of the family may be improved, he says: "We must not credit the good fortune of the family to the misfortune of the child." A recent writer in the North American Review states the manufacturers' contention thus: That for the children of the South the alternative to employment in the mills is "to live in dilapidated houses, wear wretched clothing, and eat food which is inadequate in quantity and abominable in quality, and to have the association of other children in whom poverty and idleness have fostered vice, exactly as they must do in themselves, children, in fact, to whom the lowest class of mill hands are superior in every respect."

In other words, the children of the mountain regions and of the tenant farms of the South must be sent to the mills to protect them from vicious influences.

Who are these children of the South? They are the purest Anglo-Saxon stock on the continent to begin with, of English and German and Scotch-Irish ancestry, bound to the soil by a family history of a century and a half. In the northern states the foreign born children of the cotton mills are 50.5 per cent. of the total. In North Carolina, one-tenth of one per cent. They have come from the mountains and from the coastal plain, and I make bold to claim, that they are superior, physically, mentally and morally, to their fellows in any part of the world. Perhaps I can not do better than to quote from an article by one of these mountain whites, Hon. W. A. Covington, of Georgia. He says: "We are asked to notice a picture of a one room cabin, in the mountains, with its occupants, the parents and eight children. These children are in the direst poverty. The hardness of their condition is to be abolished at once by the factories, which undertake to place them in three or four room houses, with a garden full of flowers, and made the recipients of the benefits supposed to flow from being constantly in sight of a church steeple. There also the foundation of an education is to be laid by the process inherent in a system that places the infant brain under a ten or twelve hour strain. 'We most confidently insist,' say the manufacturers, 'that the present conditions of the mill operatives is vastly superior to their condition before they went to the mills.' From all this kind of talk one is led to wonder how the children in the mountains managed to get along before the advent of the cotton mill.

"The difference does not exist. The picture that you furnish us with of the cabin home in the mountains is not so hopeless as you might think. Those people may be poor, but they are healthy in body and in mind and in heart. Although constituting perhaps one-half the population of the state, they furnish less than two per cent. of the criminal class. Although the mother of eight, as you inform us, the woman is good to see her grandchildren's children, also in multiples of eight. These children, as their predecessors have done always, will swarm down into the cities and plains, to take charge of the civilization of the state. Both church and state have been recruiting from these cabins in the mountains since this

was a nation at all. Henry Grady had this man and woman and the eight children in mind when he said with prophetic fire: 'This man shall save the republic when the drum tap is futile and the barracks are exhausted.'

"It was the ancestor of this man, with his squirrel rifle, that split asunder the British monarchy, and established this nation. They left their cabin homes 'scarcely more than ten by twelve,' did the ancestors of these people you are so anxious to help, at the call of Elijah Clarke, and the others, and they struck George III. a blow at Kings mountain that shook his throne to its base * * * Bring on your dwarfs and measure records with them."

I am not merely taking the opportunity to repel the unworthy slander upon the rural population of the South, the slander upon our very civilization, that it is necessary to confine our little children at hard labor in the mills to keep them from becoming vicious, but to point this contrast. That the extremest type of the little hut in the mountains is yet a home, and a home to which in these last years the church and the school have both gone with their help, but that the four room house in a mill village, with the system of child labor involving that of family labor, is no more a home. That child labor destroys the home.

But what the home of ignorance and even of vice is sometimes unable to accomplish, the school is often able to do. It is the corrective of the unfortunate environment of millions of homes. Ladies and gentlemen, the good angel of America is the primary school teacher. She takes the unwashed, uncombed, untaught, little ones and loves them into cleanliness and obedience and habits of punctuality and order. And I have sometimes thought that the contest between the mill and the school for the possession of the child was like that of the archangel and the devil over the body of Moses, the one for its deeper burial, the other for its lifting into a larger life.

It is claimed that only by the collecting and the centralizing which the mills have effected can the scattered children of the rural South be brought within reach of schools and teachers. But what boots it to build schools and employ teachers if the demand for labor in the mill empties the schools of the

children ? We have had the benevolence of the mills in the matter of building schools and paying the salaries of teachers pretty widely advertised. There is in this regard no left hand ignorance of right hand charity. The cases where no schools have been built are not mentioned. The cases where the benevolence is simply the payment of the lowest school tax on property are not discovered. But granting all that should be granted, giving all praise for doing more than was required, the eternal contest between the mill and the school goes on and in the very best mills and under the most enlightened management. I have a typical case in mind of a school which I visited, built by the mill management and the larger part of the teachers' salaries paid from the same source. There was an enrollment of ninety, an average attendance of thirty, eight of the children present that day had worked in the mill a part of the school term, and twenty-two had left the school for the mill, of which number there was one child of seven, five of eight, two of nine, three of ten, four of eleven and two of twelve years of age. Recent investigations in Mississippi, at that time without a child labor law, showed that twenty-five per cent. of the mill operatives were under fourteen, and fifty per cent. of the mill children illiterate. The same conditions as regards illiteracy have been found in South Carolina. Some of the mountain counties of North Carolina show a smaller percentage of illiteracy than the industrial counties such as Mecklenburg and Gaston. Census bulletin 69, of the Census Bureau, entitled, "Child Labor in the United States," shows that in 1900 the percentage of illiteracy for white children ten to fourteen years of age was, for North Carolina 16.6 per cent., while the percentage for the same ages in the factory families was 50 per cent. For South Carolina the figures were, for the whole state 14.8 per cent. illiterate; for the factory families, 48.5 per cent. In Georgia the corresponding figures are 10.4 per cent. and 44.3 per cent. That is, with all that we have heard of betterment work and educational work, the illiteracy of the children of the factory families from ten to fourteen years of age is three or four times as great as the illiteracy of the children of the same ages in the states at large. It is hardly too much to say that in these industrial states the

problem of white illiteracy might almost be solved if we could compel the children of the factories to attend school.

The conditions are not greatly different as concern this contest in Pennsylvania or New England. Thus ignorance is perpetuated and the poverty that results from ignorance, and the ignorance that results from poverty. It is an endless chain, if we allow the mill or the mine to claim the child.

I take this opportunity, before this assemblage of social workers, to record a protest against the introduction of the half-time system of education in America. The president of the National Association of Cotton Manufacturers, Mr. William D. Hartshorne, of Lawrence, Massachusetts, in his address at the annual meeting in Boston, last month, recommends the adoption of this system, a training in textile work by allowing a boy to work in the mill one week and his school fellow the week following. He says: "Such children as are generally available for work in the mill could not be accommodated in the textile schools proper, though they might be receiving some industrial education elsewhere. Would it not be well, therefore, for their educational benefit, that our regular day school children, whose compulsory education has not yet been completed, should share in the opportunity for part-time work, in some form, in order to learn not only what to do but how to work?"

This system, which every philanthropist in England has been fighting there, as physically injurious and educationally a failure, has already been adopted in South Carolina, and by one of the most enlightened and progressive mill men of the state, Mr. Lewis W. Parker. In his report of the Granby Cotton Mills, Columbia, South Carolina; Rev. A. E. Seddon writes: "The factory school has ample rooms and furnishings for the first four grades. The average attendance in this school is very high, ninety-five per cent. There is a half-time system adopted in this school. About one-half of the children attending this school work half of their time in the factory. Those who work in the morning go to school in the afternoon, and those who work in the afternoon go to school in the morning." It may occur to some that for children of the first four grades, this division of the daylight hours is all work and no

play. We must hold to the doctrine that the child has an inalienable right to play as well as to training. We must resist the beginning of this half-time system in America.

With regard to this whole system of betterment work, including the mill schools, I wish to throw out this suggestion, that the better way is to raise the industry to the point where the labor of the father can support the family with his day's wage. A prosperous community of this sort can do its own work of providing for the educational and religious life. I am persuaded with regard to my own section of the country that the average cotton mill community is the poorest place in the world for the training of a democracy, that it is in fact a relapse into feudalism. When everything belongs to the mill management, no wonder that the people fail to take any deep interest in schools or churches or to patronize the reading rooms and lyceums. They feel that they are not getting the fair rewards of their labor and would for themselves prefer justice to charity. Just a few days ago one of our investigators in Georgia was denied entrance to the mill, which was not unexpected, but also to the school, as it was regarded as the mill property and he was not even allowed to put up at the hotel, a minister of the gospel being an undesirable character if he was interested in the welfare of the mill children. One mill president, Mr. Banks Holt, of North Carolina, has solved the problem. Recognizing the need of a graded school for the mill village, he conducted a campaign of education among the mill people to secure the voting of an extra tax. The governor of the state and the state superintendent of schools were invited to speak at an educational rally, the people voted the extra tax, part a poll tax, and part a tax on property, the greater part of which was of course paid by the mill owner. And the people feel that it is their school, supported by public taxation, and patronize it accordingly.

It must be evident from the foregoing that the church has as little chance for reaching the working child as the school has. Work for eleven or twelve hours a day does not leave the little ones eager to obtain the instruction of the Sunday school. There is constant complaint from pastors and bishops

and missionaries of the exceeding difficulty of successful work among the mill children.

I, for one, regard this work of the church, this development of the religious side of the child, as fundamental work. I think sometimes that we who are engaged in the various forms of social work grow unnecessarily impatient at the attitude of the church towards our particular hobbies. I do not minimize the importance of a knowledge of social science for the minister of today. But let us remember that the great work of the church is that of making bad men good, and good men better. And the church is constantly doing that. If its voice were to be entirely hushed we should soon find that we had lost the constituency from which to draw the rank and file of the workers in all moral and social reforms. But the church is not reaching those future citizens of the state who are now, in their early years of childhood engaged in winning bread.

If neither the home, nor the school, nor the church can perform their uplifting work for these children, what shall they become.

Just now, during this period of depression, when some have been thrown out of work in the southern cotton mills, and others are living on shorter wages, it is being industriously circulated among these poor people that the agitation against child labor has brought on the panic. How cruel that is! Mississippi recently passed a child labor law with an age limit of twelve, with a fifty-eight hour week for children under sixteen. The leader of the manufacturers' lobby has since publicly threatened to discharge all the children under sixteen from the mills and to advise the other mills to do the same thing, with the avowed object of securing petitions from the mill people to the next legislature to repeal the law. Thus these people, child-workers in their youth, ignorant of the very cause of their own ignorance and poverty, are being persuaded to oppose a law which tends to the raising of their wage scale, the shortening of the hours and the opportunity for an education for their children. Comment is unnecessary.

Let each one of us, hailing from states near and far, sternly resolve that we shall do our utmost for the abolition of this new form of bondage in our own states, in our own communities,

not only for the rescue of the child toilers, but for the welfare of the state, for the building up of our citizenship.

Nor can I refrain from suggesting that the child is the future citizen of the nation as well as of the state. And as he has his duties to the nation to perform in the years to come, there is a responsibility for his welfare now that rests upon the nation, whatever our theories of the constitution may be. The constitution was made for the nation and not the nation for the constitution. It may have to be amended in order to reach this curse of child labor with the strong arm of the national power. It may need only to be interpreted aright. But whatever that situation may be, the nation should supplement state laws and state activities by saying to the exploiters of child labor: "Stop!"

On this historic soil, one hundred and thirty years ago, a Virginian, Richard Henry Lee, offered a resolution of independence, which a month later another Virginian enlarged into the National Declaration of Independence. It seems to me that the time has come for a different kind of declaration, a declaration of dependence. The children cannot speak for themselves. Whatever is done for the child must be done by others. In the name then of the toiling children of America, the neglected children, the children sacrificed to greed, I presume to suggest a paper which I shall read in their behalf:

Declaration of dependence by the children of America in mines and factories and work shops assembled.

Whereas we, children of America, are declared to have been born free and equal, and

Whereas we are yet in bondage in this land of the free; are forced to toil the long day or the long night, with no control over the conditions of labor, as to health or safety or hours or wages, and with no right to the rewards of our service, therefore be it

Resolved, I. That childhood is endowed with certain inherent and inalienable rights, among which are the right to be children, and not bread winners; the right to play and to dream; the right to the sleep of childhood during the night season; the right to an education, that we may have equality of op-

portunity for developing all that there is in us of mind and heart.

Resolved, II. That we declare ourselves to be helpless and dependent; that we are and of right ought to be dependent, and that we hereby present the appeal of our helplessness that we may be protected in the enjoyment of the rights of childhood.

Resolved, III. That we demand the restoration of our rights by the abolition of child labor in America.

NEEDS OF THE ANTI-CHILD LABOR MOVEMENT

BY OWEN R. LOVEJOY, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

In the discussions that are frequently heard in various parts of the country on the subject of child labor, there seem to be a few definite necessities. I want to name them briefly: We need to learn facts about the extent and condition of child labor in America, the extent of illiteracy, the extent to which industrial and other forms of practical education are being developed. We need to know the facts as to the causes and effects, so far as they can be traced, of child labor. We need to have these facts, so far as they are reported in state and government reports and private organizations, interpreted so that they will mean something concrete and definite to the men and women that need to have this interpretation, and so no one can hide behind the excuse of ignorance. We need to mobilize all the organized forces in our part of the country interested either directly or remotely in the well-being of the child. There are many parts of the country where no adequate forces are organized. We need to have them formed, and these forces need to be co-ordinated, so that when any forward movement is desired in any section of the country we may move upon that one point with an absolutely united front. We need to secure adequate laws in every state of the union.

The National Child Labor Committee was organized four years ago, not to create new machinery, but to further develop

and co-ordinate all the machinery and forces existing. What are the results? During these four years better child labor laws have been enacted in thirty-four states of the Union. In many states laws have been enacted for the first time. Since January, 1908, in two of our states—Florida and Mississippi—the first child labor laws have been passed. At present there is but one state in the union without any child labor law, and that is not a southern state. Nevada hardly knows the meaning of the term—child labor—but we hope to have a law placed on the statute books before the necessity becomes so great that a number of children have to be sacrificed. We cannot outline our program, because there is a certain virtue in having the program reveal itself as the work moves along. During the past week the United States Senate passed a child labor bill for the District of Columbia, toned down, doctored and mutilated, as Dr. McKelway described, placing a handicap on children of widows and dependent parents. Yesterday the house of representatives took the District of Columbia child labor bill which I had helped to formulate, and passed it without amendment.

Now we have a direct and immediate task which I want to lay on your hearts, because you are all acquainted with some senator. We want the senate during the coming week to concur in the action of the house of representatives and pass a child labor bill for the District of Columbia, which will be a model for the United States instead of a disgrace upon the statute books of our national government.

Another law which we need is a law establishing in some department, a national children's bureau which shall look to all these problems. We need a department that shall know and bring to the attention of the people of the United States, facts regarding the conditions of children.

CHILD LABOR AND EDUCATION

BY MISS JANE ADDAMS, HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO

If I could make a synthesis of the fine speeches that have been made before me, I should say that even in a state where we have a good child labor law well enforced, and a model com-

pulsory education law well enforced, we still find many things to be desired. It may be of interest to this audience if I tell you some of the experiences we have had in Illinois in regard to those two model laws, and of the advances we hope to gain in relation to child labor and compulsory education. In the first place, we have come to believe that many children leave school when they are fourteen years of age—and if an affidavit can make them fourteen a few months earlier, so much the better—largely because school does not interest them, and also because their parents see no relation between the things they learn at school and the trade which they want them to follow afterward. Much could be accomplished if the school were more closely articulated with the life which the child will later lead. This is of course difficult because society is in a constant state of change. At present we are passing through a great industrial revolution.

To be forced to admit, however, that education has not made a corresponding change, that there has been no well directed effort on the part of educators to meet these changing industrial conditions, is to spell failure so far as education is concerned, with those who are brought most sharply in contact with the present industrial order, who are the employees in its factories and in the means of transportation. They realize in their daily experiences that their children are not getting in school the things that they will need later, and they resent keeping them there with some very good reasons.

The movement for manual training is a blind effort to meet these changing industrial conditions, but it does not yet connect with the last requirement. A wise teacher will say that a little child in the kindergarten and first grades likes to make things because he is imaginative. He makes a house which barely stands up and a boat which looks like a shoe. He may call his house a castle or a bridge, and his teacher will say: "That is a very nice castle." or, "A very nice bridge," because it expresses his imagination. This same teacher, when the boy is twelve or thirteen and is still making things with his hands, will not allow him to dovetail a box if it is not accurately done and his imagination must be curbed in favor of workmanship. In the first place, the child is expressing imagination, and in the

latter stage he is learning technique. But the same boy at fourteen or fifteen years of age, making something in a school, is not content to dovetail a box for its own sake, but insists that what he is doing shall have some direct relation to the earning of money. It must have to do with the life of the family with which he is at present associated, or with that dreamy family which lies in his mind as a thing of the future. A wise teacher would say that the child goes through the imaginative period and the receptive period, and the time comes when he feels that he is a part of the life about him, and that this is quite independent of the fact that he may be immediately required to earn his living or not. If this is a true diagnosis of the phases through which a child goes we would have to admit that we have failed to keep the child in school during these later years because we have made no direct appeal to his desire to play the part of a man in the world lying outside of the school house.

In Massachusetts, some time ago, a commission was appointed by Governor Douglas, which made a careful investigation of the children of fourteen and fifteen years of age engaged in the great factories and shops. They found things which some of us knew before, although we could not reduce them to figures. They found that children working at fourteen went from factory to factory; that they worked in a box factory a few weeks and a tin-can factory another few weeks, and that they learned nothing and settled down to nothing; that the children at sixteen were earning little more than at fourteen, and that they were quite skeptical in regard to the value of "sticking to a job." If these same children had been kept in school for two years longer, in the belief that they were learning things which would enable them to earn more money at sixteen; if their parents could have been convinced that they would be repaid for the sacrifice of keeping them in school during these two wasted years —years wasted from the point of view of the education of the child, from the point of view of the wages which he brought into the family, and quite wasted from the point of view of the industrial development of Massachusetts, because no foreman in a well regulated factory can secure much value from the work of a boy or girl who stays only a few weeks—their value to themselves and to the community might have been very much greater.

What is this challenge which is brought to our modern education? Why is it that we have failed to see that this impulse to get ready to play the part of a man and earn money is a worthy educational impulse, quite as suggestive in its line of interest to the educator as the other things are, upon which education has founded itself. Herbartians say: Study the child and give him the things which he so earnestly desires.

Is it true that our education is still largely medieval and therefore class education. Medieval scholars learned the signs and symbols in which the great truths had been embodied, for in that way alone could they amass and transmit this precious learning. But in the present civilization to put stress upon signs and symbols is to drive away from school the multitude of children eager to take part in the active outside life; and the only way to save them to the school is to hitch it up to the life outside. To give the child industrial training in its historical implications and scientific foundations; to make the child understand that his work has little meaning unless it is attached to the social development about him; to give him to feel that he is taking no part in the world unless he is doing his work worthily and understandingly, such an education would not only make over the whole school, but the future generations of such children might begin to modify industry itself.

No one will underestimate the industrial age in which we live. It is our pride and our achievement. But if we would temper it, make it less ruthless, prepare the children for it so that they may stand up against its tendency to make them mere machine tenders, we must modify the school and do it fearlessly with some deference to what the child demands. Sometimes when you see a little fellow eager to go to work and held in school by the stern compulsory education law, his mother counting the days during which she must continue to scrub until the child begins to bring in wages, it is pitiful. You would not have the child go to work earlier, but you would give him the cheer of knowing that when he does go to work all that he has learned will count, and that his mother is making the sacrifice that she may share the fuller life with her boy later on.

We say it now with the air of uttering a platitude, we can't say it with the conscience and vigor which the right kind of a

school would enable us to do. I would like to give this word of advice to the states which are entering upon this needed reform of child labor, and enacting legislation on compulsory education, that the whole thing will be clearer for the working people to understand if you will modify the schools as you go along, not into schools for apprentices, but into schools which reckon with the child's later industrial life. The present industrial situation affords a splendid opportunity to educators. For the first time in the history of the world workers are without knowledge of the thing they are doing and without perception of the thing they are making. It is certainly the duty of the state to keep the children out of industry until they are old enough to stand up to it with their muscles and backbones, but it is also the duty of the state to teach the child to dominate his machine by understanding it. He must know what the machine is about as well as the old-fashioned child on the farm knew what the plow was for. It means both to socialize the school and to humanize industry.

There is a gulf between the school and the factory which needs to be bridged, not by the school making concessions, but by making adaptations. If the school stands still, on the one hand industry becomes materialistic and ruthless, and the school on the other hand loses its vitality and becomes dead, and more or less medieval in its methods. To bring the two together is the mission of the people who would enable the workman to master his machine with his mind as well as with his hands, and to supplement the daily grind of the factory with some spiritual power which will humanize and lift the workman above its deadening effects. Such an education would help all of us to judge life more fairly in its material and spiritual aspects.

The story that Miss Gordon told about the children who are sacrificed to the green plush album, reminded me of an experience we had in a lodging house in Chicago. A boy of eighteen came there dying of tuberculosis. We wrote to his mother in Pittsburg, and she sent some money that we might send him home, and with the money was a long letter expressing her disappointment in this boy, stating that he had gone to work in a glass factory at nine, where he stayed three years; then he went with his father into one of the large foundries in Pittsburg

and had been a good boy until at the age of fifteen he had typhoid fever. After he recovered from the illness she said he didn't seem to be worth very much, and soon after that he ran away with a dog and pony show. She could not understand, because he had always been a good boy and had seemed to care for more serious things, what attraction the dog and pony show should have for him. But the show broke up in New Orleans. The boy beat his way back as far as Chicago, and there he was at eighteen, dying of tuberculosis. The mother wrote that his younger brother was doing well in the high school and his sister was going to be a teacher; that they had paid for their home and had a nice room ready for him with a carpet and lace curtains. It was the green plush album in another form. The poor woman had no idea that she had sacrificed this first child to her very laudable desire to buy a home and to educate the younger children. She felt that the dog and pony show had ruined him, and the notion that his desire for excitement was the inevitable reaction against premature labor, could not enter her mind. It would have taken a more hard-hearted person than any of us were to suggest these things to her in her hour of affliction. So the boy went back and died, and his mother is no doubt taking great comfort in the little house with the carpet and the lace curtains, and the younger children who were to profit by the sad example of her first-born. Those of us who live among working people see this false standard which the schools and churches fail to correct, the materialistic standard of life which we allow factories to set for us, forgetting that after all they are our servants, supplying only the material basis of life; that education must master them for the sake of the children even as legislation protects the children from being prematurely caught in their operation.

JUVENILE COURTS AS PART OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE COUNTRY

BY JULIAN W. MACK, OF CHICAGO

The first question which suggests itself to any community in which the proposition of founding a juvenile court is made, is

—What does it all mean ? What does it stand for ? What is there particularly new about it ? Hasn't society heretofore cared for the child ? Haven't private organizations or the church, even before, been co-operating with the state and taking hold of the little ones and endeavoring to raise them into decent citizenship ?

Yes and no. So far as the orphan or the dependent child is concerned, in most of our states much has always been done. When private organizations and the church failed to take charge of the orphan, the state generally did hold out a helping hand, and did provide—in a limited measure, it is true—but still did provide some sort of care for them. In dealing with the dependent, the orphan, and the simply neglected child, there is nothing striking and fundamentally new in the work of the juvenile court.

The newer stimulus that the care of the dependents has received from the juvenile court, has been in furtherance of the views of those who believe that valuable as orphan asylums are, they do not spell the last word in the methods of caring for the dependent child, but rather they are merely a step towards a higher and nobler viewpoint.

Every child deserves a home; the home being the natural fundamental basis of our civilization, is the place in which the child can receive its proper and natural development, and therefore it should be our aim to find for as many children as possible, real homes, instead of herding them together in institutions.

There are some defective children needing permanent custodial care for whom homes can be found only with the greatest difficulty. There are some children for whom the institution is much better than the individual home. But for the average normal child—for your child if it should lose you—the home is the place where you would want it to grow up, and the home is therefore where we should see to it that the children of those who can no longer look after them, are brought.

The juvenile court in its work with dependent children is exerting its influence in every way in aid of home-finding organizations.

But mere finding of homes is not enough. The child in

its own home is supposed to get love and care and attention. The child in an institution properly managed gets oversight, care and attention, whatever the defects may be incident to the gathering together of a number of children without a real home. In supplying the missing good that we think we are supplying in putting a child in a home, we must be extremely careful to see to it that the positive good which it does get in an institution, is not missing in the family. We must see to it that there be careful supervision, constant visitation of these homes, and that the child be not placed in order that the family may get a cheap servant, and the family be not permitted to utilize and abuse the privilege that has been given it. And not in the mere sense of placing out children for pay, but in the grander work of securing homes by way of adoption, the juvenile court lends its aid.

The distinctive note that has been struck by this legislation is in the treatment of the child who is not merely orphaned or neglected, but who has done some positive wrong, or is evidencing criminal or evil tendencies which, if not checked, will soon lead it into the clutches of the law. In our jurisprudence there was no difference between the child and the adult. If the law were broken, as soon as the child reached the age of criminal responsibility—be it seven or ten or twelve years—it was treated exactly in the same way as an adult. The dignity of the state demanded vindication; and the necessity of punishment was obvious. In order to satisfy this injured dignity of the state, the little one of ten or twelve would be arrested, thrown into the station house, mingling there with drunks, vags and harlots, the scum of civilization. Then he was brought into the criminal court, whose single aim was to decide—has this little one done the particular thing with which it is charged? If the jury did its duty and answered honestly, and the child was guilty, the law knew no alternative but to sentence the child, be it to a fine for a petty offence, to imprisonment in the workhouse or the jail, perhaps to the penitentiary; yea, in the history of our law even with children of eight and nine, in the old, long since past days of England, to hang them.

What was the result of this method? First and least, perhaps, the tremendous expense of all this legal machinery, and

the tremendous expense of the care of the children in the prisons. But vastly more important was the effect on the child. The natural, normal effect on any child, as well as adult, of that method of criminal law—excepting in a very few cases—was a permanent criminal career. The state was really doing all it could to educate and train these children. with but this difference, that we were then educating children to a career of criminality, while to-day we are really trying to educate these children into good, decent citizenship, to the end that they may receive and enjoy the birthright of every American child. The Juvenile Court legislation struck this new note, that instead of enquiring whether a child was doing wrong, for the purpose of punishing; we deal with the child for the single and sole purpose of doing that which is best for the future of the child, its family and the state.

Now that sounds pretty well; nobody would refuse adherence to the principle that that is the right thing to do for the child. The question is, how are you going to make the thing effective? Do not let me leave a false impression. The Juvenile Court legislation was not the first step toward it. I trust it is not the last. We did take a great step forward in this country—and we have been followed in it by the countries in Europe—when we established reformatories and separated the youthful felon from the adult; when we demanded that these boys who were sentenced to several years in the reformatory should receive a thorough industrial training while there. But the reforming was not the fundamental idea. It was only incidental. We still demanded the punishment. We still measured out punishment according to the particular act. We still asked, when the child came into the court, "Have you done this particular thing? If you have, you should be punished." That was the underlying principle.

To-day we do not ask merely have you done this particular thing, but in attempting to give a child the training that it needs, we ask first of all—what are you, mentally, physically, spiritually, and why have you become what you are? What are the causes that have led to your act—not merely to your act, but to your present condition? What are the elements of heredity, of environment, of physical and mental development, of school

life and play life, that have contributed to form your present character? What is there in all of this of evil, and how can we best eradicate that evil. Aye, more, not to leave you a mere negative, how can we in addition to eradicating the bad, develop—not implant, but develop—positive good that is latent in every human being, and thereby bring out your true character for your own good and for the good of society? So as the Chairman has correctly and wisely said, the work of the Juvenile Court is educational.

In order to know what the conditions are that have brought the child to its present state, we must get away from the theory of the criminal law, in dealing with the child in court. I should say that was the first principle in legislation and practice of this kind. In many of our states, even in Juvenile Court legislation, the child is dealt with under the criminal laws wonderfully modified, and in a measure well adapted to the situation. But it always seems to me that it is a better and a wiser step forward not to deal with the child as a criminal, not to charge it with the commission of a particular offense, not to convict and then apply punishment and suspend sentence and let the child go out under its promise to do better in the hope that if it does do better its sentence would be lifted. It seems to me the better method is to treat the child as the ward of the state under its broad chancery power, under the doctrine under which the state is the ultimate guardian of all children. This is the doctrine which has always been applied when a child has property, and which can as well be applied when a child has only itself and nothing else. Under this broad conception of the duty of the state toward the child to take care of it, to be its guardian and to appoint temporary care-takers and guardians over it, the action of the court can be much better regulated, and the proceedings can assume a much broader character. Many of the technical rules of evidence applicable to criminal cases are not applicable when applied to the investigation on the part of the guardian or the court as to what is the best thing for the guardian to do with his ward. In that way, without violating our fundamental constitutional principles, the inquiry can be made thoroughly and generally to ascertain all of these fundamental facts on which the action of the court is to be based. Of course,

to ascertain them, there must be attached to the court necessary help, there must be an investigation, and there must be investigators. We have long since learned that efficient philanthropic work can best be done by those who are making a life work of it. We must not rely in these investigations upon mere voluntary help. There must be supplied to the court the necessary paid officials.

There is a distinction between an investigator and a probation officer. A probation officer—if the term be properly used—is the one to whose care and supervision the child is assigned after the court has determined that that is the proper action. But as the courts have actually developed, our probation officers are usually both probation officers and investigators. Perhaps there is no great harm in this, except that they are generally overworked with the probation business alone. So in the actual, practical work, before the child is brought to the court for a hearing, a thorough investigation is made, and all the facts that will throw light upon the past of the child, are as far as possible, gathered together and presented to the court.

Again, while the investigator and probation officer may go into the neighborhood and into the family, and ascertain the family history and the conditions that surround the child, unless she be an expert, a specialist in child work and child life from a medical and psychical standpoint, the investigation cannot be of that complete kind on which proper judicial action should be based. There must be attached to every Juvenile Court a medical department for the thorough examination of each one of these delinquent children that are brought to the court. We must know all the physical and mental defects of the child, because it is only if we know them that we can remove the obstacles that have retarded his normal development; and surely we cannot expect to raise normal children if we do not try to make them healthy, to make them physically and mentally normal, in order that they become spiritually normal, too.

In many of our Juvenile Courts this work is being more or less thoroughly done. It cannot be done too thoroughly. The community cannot demand too insistently that the proper authorities see to it that that sort of medical, mental and psychical investigation be thoroughly made.

Now the judge having before him the results of all these inquiries, may be in a measure fit to deal with the problem. I say, he may be. We must be a little careful about the judge, because often he does not play nearly the important role that he is usually supposed to play. Although he is not anything like the important personage that these sympathetic souls imagine he is, still he is of some importance in the world. In some states the judges take turns month by month. No man can best fit himself for this sort of work if he is going to be engaged in it a month, and then has to deal with other problems the next two or three years, and come back to it again for a month. It is not in the line of study of most of the judges, and it is impossible to them, busy as they are, to become thoroughly interested or thoroughly trained in this sort of work.

It has been thought at times that we did not need men trained in the law for this work. I am frank to say that there is very little law about it. I would rather have a thorough student of child life, a thorough student of philanthropy and the educational problems of the day, who knew no law, than the wisest jurist who knew nothing of philanthropy or the educational problems and had no interest in the child. But as one Supreme Court has pointed out, it is a dangerous experiment to take only a layman. In our system of jurisprudence we haven't substituted for the jury a bench of three or five judges. If we had it might be wise to have a physician, an expert philanthropist and a trained lawyer sit together. But under our system of one judge in the lower courts, it seems to me that if for no other reason than that the Juvenile Court is really an essential part of the judicial system of the state, it should be in the hands of a lawyer trained to appreciate constitutional limitations, never forgetful of the essential principle that we are a government of laws and not of men. The danger to the judge who fails to appreciate that fundamental conception of our government is great; because both the public and his own probation officers, are apt to regard him as all-powerful, as one who can exercise his arbitrary and tyrannical good-will just as it may please him, forgetful of the fact that it is not the good-will of the accidental judge, any more than the bad-will of some accidental judge, that ought

to govern in the affairs of men, but fundamental principles and rules properly administered. So I say that in every city the endeavor should be to secure for this position men who will devote a considerable time to it, who will become interested students of its problems. Whether in a particular community it be wise to establish an entirely new court called the Juvenile Court, and select a judge who will have nothing else to do, as is done in Denver and Boston and Baltimore; or whether it be wiser to assign some one judge in one of the other courts to act for a year or two or three as judge of the Juvenile Court, is a question that must be determined by local conditions. The essential thing is that one be secured who will really become a student not merely of law, but of the philanthropic and educational questions that are so vital in the development of the Juvenile Court.

Now then, what is the judge going to do after he gets this report and finds out all about the child? I said he is not merely going to punish that child. At the same time the child must appreciate, that we are governed by law, and that the law is there to be observed. It must understand the purpose and the reason back of it. It may be told this in the five, ten, fifteen or thirty minutes that the judge can devote to its case, and it may perhaps impress the child. It will impress every one of them at least as long as they are in the court room. It may impress some even after they have left the court room. But my experience of human nature is, that the kindly talk of that wise, fatherly judge is the least important part of the work of the Juvenile Court. A community is fortunate to secure a judge, and I will not mention names of those present, but one absent, as an illustration—like Judge Lindsey, who will not merely give advice in the few moments at his command, but who, living in a smaller and more or less homogeneous community, is able now to give his entire time to these problems, and do the greater and more important work which in large cities necessarily is left to the probation officer. Under such circumstances the influence of the judge is the most important. Most of us judges are not so happily situated by environment to do the kind of work Judge Lindsey is able to do so wonderfully and so efficiently.

Therefore, most of us are compelled to delegate this most vital part of the work to the probation officers.

The probation system is the foundation stone of the Juvenile Court. Our method of dealing with the child, even if we had no probation, would be better than the former method in the criminal court, because now the child is not taken to the station house, there to mingle with the adult criminals. To meet that need, detention homes are provided. It is not necessary to do as they did in Chicago, erect a magnificent home. In the smallest community you can rent the most unpretentious building and keep it decent and a fit place for these children, instead of doing as you are doing in most of your communities still permitting them to go to the station houses and prisons and jails. But the probation work is the most important work connected with the court. Carrying out the principle that it is the aim of the state not merely to punish, but to do that which is best for the child, we endeavor, no matter what the crime may be, if the home is at all fit for the child and if the child is still at all fit for the home, to give it a chance to work out its own salvation in its own home, but under the constant supervision of the court through its probation officers.

There was a great deal of positive good in our former methods of dealing with children, because when we put them in prison we gave them oversight and supervision, and the humanitarian instincts of those in charge tended toward educating and developing the child. It is not so much the actual practice of the former regime that is to be fought, it is the underlying principle, the danger of the bad being greater than the good. But when we have the right principle we must not imagine for a moment that the principle alone, without proper practice, is going to change the child. We must not, when we refrain from sending a child away, let it go back to its home with the idea that it can violate law and suffer no consequence; that it can keep on in its evil course without fear, without danger, without knowledge of the consequence to itself. So we must have the probation officer representing in a measure the power and authority of the state, but representing in a far larger measure the love, the genuine interest of the state, in the child. So the probation officer must be not of the jail guard type, but

of the educated, philanthropic worker type, not all mind and not all heart, but a wise mingling of the two.

He is not always easy to find, yet is one of the things that we, in all sections of our country, are trying to develop from the raw material through our various schools of philanthropy; and for this reason alone, apart from all the other reasons, he deserves your support. We must train up a generation of probation officers if we are to do our work effectively, because unless probation be real, unless probation accomplish the result of keeping the child from going wrong, unless probation be kept from getting into a rut, and becoming like so much of our official work, superficial instead of fundamental, and official instead of human; the whole system of the Juvenile Court will be discredited, and the reaction will inevitably come demanding that the children again be taken away and put where they are given proper supervision.

So I join most heartily in the views urged upon, and now adopted in the state of New York, of having the probation work thoroughly supervised, thoroughly organized, thoroughly and systematically investigated and reported upon, so that the probation officer may not feel complete liberty to do as he pleases, but may realize that he is answerable to a higher authority for the results of the work.

More than that even, no matter how much we spend in connection with the Juvenile Court in this method of dealing with the child, there is a vast saving for the state over the old method of putting children in prison, a saving both immediate and in the far-reaching sequence of raising up decent citizens instead of criminals. The whole movement is too new to enable us to get all the probation officers we should like to have, and all we really need, to do the work thoroughly. So for this reason, as well as others, unless we keep the interest of the community itself thoroughly and vitally aroused and interested in all the problems relating to the child, we are not going to accomplish the best that should be.

For these several reasons it is extremely important to supplement the work of the regular probation officer by the work of the volunteer. We all know the difficulties involved in friendly visiting and in securing the right kind of friendly

visitors. We must correct these difficulties in this work as we do in charity organizations. We must do as Indianapolis does, get a corps of volunteer probation officers who will take an individual interest in the individual child, thereby supplementing in the highest degree the work of the regular, paid probation officer, who can act as the general probation officer over the officers in her particular district. If a child knows that there is some one man or woman who knows life, who has made a real success and is genuinely and thoroughly interested in it, it has a vital stimulus in its endeavor to do better and to prove worthy of the interest that is being taken in it.

Not merely older men and women, but even young professional men and young business women who could give the time necessary to become the friend of a boy, take him out for a baseball game or to the theater, go to his home and see to it that he has proper companionship and healthful recreation, that he has work; one who, in addition to that, will confer with the family and bring a rebinding of the so often loosened ties between the parent and the child, in this way assisting the regular, paid probation officer—one such person in each community for each single child in the court, and the problem of juvenile delinquency will have taken a great step toward its proper solution.

If the time comes when we must take these children away from the homes, we must not again put them into prison. In order to carry out the fundamental conception we must provide in every community the right kind of a school where the child will receive not only supervision and care, but love and thoughtful interest and a thorough equipment for life. Out in the country preferably, for the contact with mother earth and the benefits of pure air; for most of these children are stunted in their growth, with an institution where they can get these benefits with a wise head—never appointed because of his politics—and all the subordinates getting their inspiration from the head, we would be doing our duty by the child that we take away.

And yet all of these things are at the best curative. We get the child just a little too late when he comes into the Juvenile Court. He has already gone wrong. Of course, we are doing preventive work because we are trying to save him from becom-

ing a criminal. Yet looking at it in a broader way, it is only one of the administrative forces of the state taking hold of its wards who have fallen by the way. That is not the great work of philanthropy, you all know. The great work is to prevent the evils that are bringing about these conditions and to do constructively good work so that we may raise up a generation of intelligently good and positively decent citizens.

While it has always seemed good to have a Juvenile Court, it is not a very great good unless you do a great many other things. I am always sorry for a community—and I don't hesitate to say so even here—that has not a compulsory education law. If you are going to permit parents to keep their children from the schools; if you are going to say to the child that there is no legal duty to go to school, you cannot expect the poor child to go there. I am sorrier still for the community that has no child labor law, because if you are going to permit the children to be stunted for material gain, to be robbed of the birthright of education and recreation and joyous development, you are surely going to train up a generation of criminals. But given these two laws—and of course they won't enforce themselves—much more is needed on the constructive side.

I said before that we needed a medical examination of the child before the judge is fit to deal with him. One of the great causes of delinquency is truancy. Adenoid growths lead indirectly to truancy. They lead to the penitentiary. A child with neglected adenoid growths goes to school. He cannot breathe properly. He gets out of harmony with the teacher, and the teacher in our public schools has too many children to look after. The child would rather go out into the street. Then it is not much fun to bum alone, so he will get one of his companions to bum with him. And then it is not much fun even to bum. It is much more fun to go down on the railroad track and break open a seal and steal some stuff out of the car. What is the result? The child is arrested. Unless the Juvenile Court is particularly fortunate, and is able to check these things; a child once arrested, and having once mingled with the older criminals, goes on in its way to criminality, and lands—at least many of them—in the penitentiary, all due to adenoid growths.

What is the cure? Provided the child has adenoid growths,

how are you going to find out? I don't stand for socialism, but if we have public schools and consider it our duty to educate children, surely it is our duty to see to it that the parents—or if they cannot do it, that the community to which the child belongs, sees that it is fit to be educated. A child that cannot read because of defective sight, and is compelled to sit at his desk to read all day, or a child that cannot work with his books from morning until night because of some nervous condition, but still is compelled to do that instead of being given the opportunities of manual training and plenty of recreation; a child that can not breathe right because of adenoid growths, is not the child to be educated. Let us first discover these defects through medical inspection, and that the illness is not the excuse for continued truancy. With medical inspection and trained nurses in the schools, as we discover these things let us remedy them.

And then let us not forget that it is the birthright of the child to have fun. Dr. Gulick, head of the Playground Association of America, has said that the really important thing in the world is not work, it is play, and particularly for the child. Let us see that they have opportunity for play. But they cannot play on your crowded streets. They must have their recreation centers. They must have their athletic fields, if you want them to develop into physically and mentally fit and morally sound American citizens.

And the girls that are working all day in shops, that go home into the crowded tenement districts of our big cities, and in the slum districts of your smaller cities where there is plenty of dirt—because people generally are not wise enough to demand their rights as citizens to have the streets cleaned—and where things are dark and gloomy. Within those girls is the cry that is in your girls, for joy and recreation, and the normal, natural desire to meet the opposite sex in companionship. Those girls go out into the street. They haven't had the education that enables them to distinguish between the gilt and the gold; they do not know as your daughters know, what real beauty is. That which is bright and loud seems to them often beautiful, and they go where the light is brightest and where there is music, to find enjoyment. They meet those who are lying in wait for them, and not from love or lust, but from the very exuberance of joy

which is human, and natural in youth, they come to their ruin. What are you going to do? Stamp out those places and deprive them of all possibility of joy? Possibly. But they will find some other way. It is not enough merely to prevent evil. We must over-balance the bad and put in the good. We must give them centers of life and joy where in a decent way under decent auspices they may get it. If private philanthropy does not supply them, or even if it does, we must see that the community itself as a community, recognizes it as part of the duty of the state to the child to provide these places. That is what we are doing in Chicago, spreading our small parks with their recreation houses, their games, their swimming pools and assembly halls. Not only that, because these places would become nests for the scoundrels of the neighborhood lying in wait; but properly supervising them and doing that which we do well and thoroughly.

The ideals of the Juvenile Court are spreading, and around it are clustering all these influences for good. Perhaps better and more important than any I have mentioned are the juvenile protective leagues, which are designed to see that the causes of evil in the various localities are eradicated, that the constructive good things are supplied, that the parents who are ruining their children, that the saloonkeeper who is selling to the minor, that the corporation that is sending young twelve and fourteen year old boys into houses of prostitution with their messages, are all made to realize that there is a law above them; that the adult delinquent laws are going to be enforced against them, and that if the good of the child brought to their notice is not sufficient to make them do their duty, fear of punishment will compel them to do it.

Do not imagine that such work is needed in the great cities alone. The smaller communities need it just as well. We see it in the suburbs of our cities. We have a very classical, academic town within the county in which Chicago is located, but no probation officer has found more work to do than the one in that town. Do not imagine that it is only in the slums that things are wrong. True, most of the children that come into the Juvenile Court come from the poor and the slum home. But your children and my children have the same needs, and are in the

same dangers. When I say locate parks and playgrounds, I say locate them in the slums, but do not locate them only in the slums. Your boys need a place to play ball. If they don't get the playground they will play on the street, and they will go just as the others do. You are running the same risk only in a somewhat less degree.

Let us look to the work of the social, the hygienic societies in our city; let us see that our boys and girls get that instruction in sex knowledge that prudery no longer tells us to keep from them, and save them from some of the evils under which the present generation is suffering. Let us all work together, aiding the Juvenile Court, aiding these various philanthropic organizations that are assisting it, aiding toward the betterment of our municipal governments that they may be brought to the realization of their duty to the children, and the time will come when we can say in truth, all of us optimists, with that great poet of optimism:

"God's in His heaven,
All's right with the world."

DISCUSSION

HON. WILLIAM H. DELACY, of Washington—I will emphasize only a few points. First is the need of sufficient probation officers. Judge Mack stated that there are too many children as a rule under the care of a school teacher in our public schools. But what will you say of the probation officer having a hundred and fifty children under his care scattered not within a school district, but all over the city?

Now if this new custodial care of delinquent children is to reach its object of character-building, we must have not only the right kind of probation officer—and I agree he is an exceedingly scarce commodity—but we must have enough probation officers.

The volunteer probation officer does not appeal strongly to me, for the reason, nothwithstanding our many very rich men in America today, the great body of our citizenship is practically on a level and most must toil for a living, with little leisure for social service. It seems to me that this effort, the placing at the disposal of the child an individual helper can be reached in another way, and I have been trying it in Washington. While the child is under probation we deal with him ourselves. We keep in strict confidence his wrongdoing, because if you wish to help any of these boys or girls to a higher and better life, you must not proclaim them to the world as bad children, lest no one trust them. In the first place, these children are never released from probation unless they are at school or have employment. We keep them until we secure employment, and when they are ready to go out from under the guidance of the court, we send a letter to the child's rabbi or pastor or priest or schoolteacher, according as the case may be, and ask that personage to become a brother to that child. This plan has worked very suc-

cessfully with us. The work is done quietly. There is no meeting of any association, no necessity to have the thing talked about and reported in the newspapers. And the work is efficiently done by those naturally interested in the welfare of the child.

I have sat with Judge Mack in his Juvenile Court through a long day's proceedings, and I want to say here in his presence, I was delighted to see the last child in the shades of evening, receive the same patient and kindly treatment that had been accorded to the first child in the morning. The number of juvenile offenders is appalling. Nevertheless, I am an optimist, too. I believe with Tennyson:

"Better twenty years of Europe
Than a cycle of Cathay."

But I want to say to you ladies and gentlemen who are trained investigators in these subjects, and who are engaged in studying how to uplift the dependent and delinquent little ones in our communities, that not even the omnipotent power of the state can make a good citizen out of a bad character or disposition. This is illustrated by two boys out of the same family and out of the same environment, by the same father and mother, from the same school and the same church and the same playmates, and one becomes a general in the United States Army, while the other is a vagabond, and coming out of the penitentiary buys a revolver with which to go home and kill his mother. There are limitations to our work, and the warning is that even in the juvenile court the judge shouldn't be so good as to be good for nothing, and it would seem best that all the laws concerning childhood, all the laws that have to do with the conservation of the family should be enforced through the juvenile court.

You have gone a great way toward preventing the criminal tendencies of the child when you compel him whose duty it is—the father—to properly support his family. In the District of Columbia we have such a law. If a father, without just cause, refuses to support his wife or children he is deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and punished by fine or imprisonment. He may get into the workhouse and the wife gets fifty cents a day for the work he does. Or he may be fined in the discretion of the court, and the judge has the choice to direct the turning of that fine over to the wife or to some institution for the care of the children, or some trustee, so the family, already a danger to society by reason of being below the poverty line, is not driven further into the scum. The practical result of working out that law has been this, that in the District of Columbia over two thousand dollars were paid to the clerk of the court in December for the support of such families. In the first year the amount was over six thousand dollars, in the last ten months over seventeen thousand dollars have been collected and paid over, and the families have been kept in reasonable comfort, also it means the training of character on the part of fathers who have been compelled to see that they must discharge their obligations to their wives and children. Many a lazy vagabond who would eat at the family board and not contribute a cent toward it, has thus been forced to go to work. In other words, it has been promotive of American industry.

Hon. Arthur Peters, of Louisville, Ky.—Our legislature has passed a new juvenile court law which is one of the most progressive in the country. Judge Mack was kind enough to give us advice. They have also passed an adult responsibility law which enables the court to bond the parent and make him work instead of being put in jail where he can't work. They have passed very stringent truancy and child labor laws, the most advanced of any in the country. You will sympathize with me when I tell you that they put the enforcement of these laws on me as juvenile judge, and give me one day a week to do it. Our constitution forbids the legislature creating a new court, so they had to divide the county court.

I am judge of the county court, the quarterly court, the fiscal court and the juvenile court. I have one day a week to attend to juvenile court work. I feel at home just as you do in Richmond when you see these programs in the morning with all these meetings going on at the same time. That is the way I feel all the time in Louisville. No one can have anything to do with juvenile court work, and not want to give his whole time and attention to it. But when you have to go on Monday to one court and on Tuesday to another and Wednesday to another and Thursday to another, and get through with twenty-five or thirty cases, then in the juvenile court Friday, you feel that you are neglecting your opportunities and not doing justice to yourself or to the children.

One thing has struck me as peculiar in juvenile court work. It is the only court I know of that depends for the success of its machinery on public sentiment and public help. Take the criminal court and chancery court, they can grind out justice—or injustice—and the community at large pays no attention to their existence. But in the juvenile court the work would amount to nothing unless the community co-operated and helped.

In Louisville we have a paid probation officer, he might be called the investigating officer. It takes all the time of our probation officer to investigate the cases. After they have been investigated they come into court. Any skilful examination can detect a broken bone, and any skilful surgeon is able to set that bone. But it is the slow, unceasing support of the splint and bandages that effect the cure. All the judge can do is to put the bandage on, and the volunteer probation officer must see that it remains on, is kept straight, and that the investigating office bears fruit. The judge stands between the investigating officers and the volunteer probation system, and it is these two that really accomplish the work of the juvenile court.

In Kentucky we have a great many problems, some very vexing. One of them is the education of the mountain children. This has been taken up by the good ladies of Louisville, and they are raising money all over the state for this purpose. I subscribe heartily to that work. Mrs. Alice Hegan Rice, who wrote "Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch," wrote an article in support of this work. She described a mountain boy in his mountain home after his day's work was done, leaning on his hoe, looking up over the mountain, wondering "ain't nobody ever going to learn me nothing?" That was sent out, as an appeal, and they got a great deal of money. But to me far more touching is the appeal of the dirty-faced, abandoned child who comes into court seeming to say, "Ain't nobody ever going to love me?" My friends, that little mountain boy has a father and mother and sisters and brothers. He has a home. And that is what the little boy in the juvenile court has not got. That is what we have to find for him.

Hon. George S. Addams, of Cleveland—I have been looking over the program. Those who got it up certainly knew their business, because they put education at the head and the juvenile court next. All the subjects discussed in this conference are more or less related, but the juvenile court and the education problems are most intimately related to all of them. There is not a thing on this program that does not concern the juvenile court. This is because we have ceased to regard punishment as the object. It is now a mere incident in juvenile court work. We want to know what to do with all the children in order to cure them of their troubles, and make them good citizens. In order to do that, we must first know what the trouble is. That takes us back to all these subjects you are studying, and into the economic field as well. What are the causes of poverty, of sickness and disease, and what leads to the unequal distribution of wealth? Then discovering what the trouble is, we have to join our hands with the people who are working along the particular line in

which the trouble lies. If it be tuberculosis, we go to the visiting nurses. If it is poverty, we turn the family over to the associated charities. It is our business to find some one to lend a helping hand. We cannot ourselves do everything that is to be done. They have spoken of the insignificant number of probation officers, and the large number of children to be cared for. In large cities juvenile courts are little more than clearing houses to get together the boy or girl that needs help and the agencies that will do the most good.

In Cleveland we adopted a card system for our volunteer probation officers, and whenever we hear of any one that possesses the rare qualities of a good heart and good sense—the qualities are not so rare, but the combination is—we put his name on a card and enlist him. We have enlisted a large number of firemen among these volunteer probation officers. When I first went into juvenile court there were many ladies with long gloves and fine laces who condescended to do this work, but that is not the kind of probation officers we want. They do not go with the kids. We try to find the leaders of the various nationalities, and advise them. The firemen and policemen are especially helpful, because they are scattered all over the city, and, what is more, they wear a uniform, and this the youngsters think is the greatest thing on earth. And many of them are splendid men, and they make good helpers, and we use them in our business as we use everybody else who can help.

MRS. GREGORY, of Denver, Colo.—We work in thorough harmony with the attendance department of our public schools and the Associated Charities and our Humane Society, and the State Bureau of Child and Animal Protection. As Judge Mack said, we need probation officers with hearts and brains, as well as common sense.

A year ago we opened a day nursery in connection with the juvenile court. We have taken children from their homes and placed them in this day nursery—children who received no love at home on account of moral depravity. Parents would report children who would steal and lie and run away. We find that some children who are taken from their homes and placed directly in other homes, do not give the satisfaction that our children do now, after they have had the special training in the nursery. Children are placed out on probation. After we have had them in our nursery and detention home from three to six months, they are usually ready to be admitted into another home. We study the homes into which we expect to place children, and the adaptability of the home to the child.

MR. A. J. HUTTON, of Wisconsin—The business of each generation is to train the young of the next generation. The great thing that must be done is to keep the children willing for service, and make them able for service. I say to "keep them willing," because they are naturally willing. No joy that comes into the heart of a child is greater than the joy of service. But the experiences of life take that joy out of him. One of the problems of our civilization is how to keep it in the heart of the child. Then also is needed the training to make him able for that service. How many mothers do you know who are waiting-maids to their growing daughters? You can't make great women out of girls by waiting upon them. The secret is that you make them grow in womanly character, and the boys grow in manly character, not by what you do for them, but what you permit them to do for you.

RABBI MORRIS M. FEUERLICHT, of Indiana—Judge Peters struck the secret of our success. It is public sentiment. We must be aroused to a realization of the importance of the juvenile court movement. In Indianapolis we have enlisted the interests of our best citizenship, men and women, to the importance of rearing children so that we may have a citizenship worthy of the ideals of our republic. We have gone to the different or-

ganizations of our city and asked them that a committee be appointed to secure probation officers along the lines suggested by Judge Addams, of Cleveland. We have asked the local council of women to appoint a committee to secure women probation officers adequate and fit in the same spirit and in the same sense as has been suggested here. We have organized a children's aid society as an adjunct of the juvenile court not merely to rescue, but as Judge Mack has pointed out, to prevent children from coming into the juvenile court. We have gone to the people and said—nine-tenths of you are believers in some sort of faith. You profess it in your churches and in your homes in some more or less ceremonial form. Now here is a practical form in which your religious belief can manifest itself. If you believe in the purity of childhood, I care not whether you be Protestant, Catholic or Jew, the foundation principle of your faith demands that before you make of any child a Protestant or Catholic or Jew, you make of him a man or a woman. As president of our Children's Aid Association I have gone before the people and said from the religious viewpoint it is the duty of each and every believer to assist in this work of the juvenile court.

Then I have said to the people—you claim to be good citizens. What are you doing to substantiate that claim? Voting? Some of you don't even do that. I have said to our men and women—if you believe you are a good American citizen, here is the most practical proof you can give of it from the economic viewpoint, how much better it is that you spend a few dollars in rearing these children properly, so you may save the money that will otherwise have to be paid out in taxes to shelter these boys and girls when they become inmates of the penitentiary and such institutions? The money argument seems to appeal most strongly to some people, and along these lines we have succeeded with many. We have from three hundred and fifty to four hundred professional and business men who are vitally and enthusiastically interested—each one—in the individual child entrusted to his or her care. At bottom of it all it is the fundamental religious spirit that inspires the enthusiasm for this movement. It strikes a sympathetic and responsive chord in the hearts of those who would like to undertake it. I feel that the only hope of success of this movement lies in our insistence upon that point.

MRS. FREDERICK SCHOFF, of Pennsylvania—It has been our duty since 1901, when we adopted the juvenile court and probation laws, not only to supervise the probation work, but the probation officers as well. We have the same plan that Indianapolis has in bringing the different churches and different organizations together, because we believe community interest is essential to this work. We have Jews and Catholics, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Hicksites and Orthodox Friends who make up the Juvenile Court and Probation Association. They meet every week with the probation officers. We feel that the probation work is on trial, and unless we can keep it up to a high standard it will be voted a failure. We had in December over six hundred on probation. Less than fifty of them were unsuccessful. We go to every legislature, and all bills have been enacted at our request. The Children's Aid Society is co-operating with us. They do all the placing out work. We meet with them, and we believe each one is just one link in the system. We must bring them together in order to have the best conditions for the children.

REV. JOHN POWER, of Minnesota—One thought strikes me, and it is this: Law will never make a man good. You have to get down and beyond the law to something fundamental, and that fundamental principle is religion. Until you can make a man or a woman recognize and observe the commandments of God, you can never make a good man or woman.

You can never make a father or mother do their duty to their children—their God-given duty—until you make them recognize that they are bound to do so by the commandments of God. Therefore, while I am deeply interested in probation work, and while I recognize that probation should not take into consideration any religious class or creed, yet I believe that in order to make a good child you must get down into his heart and there plant the seed of religion. You must go into that child's home and plant into the hearts of the father and mother the seeds of religion. When you have done this you can commence to build, because you have your foundation laid, and, as Judge Mack said, then we can start our constructive work.

JUDGE MACK—I omitted to say that it is a fundamental duty of all juvenile court judges and probation officers, and any other persons who are interested in the juvenile court, to be diligent readers of "Charities and the Commons." I do not know how any one can fit himself or keep fit for this work without it. There is a most illuminating editorial in the number of April 25th of this year, on the right view of the child. We stand for the fundamental preventive work which makes for the proper beginning of the child—as the writer says, the normal birth, physical protection, joyous infancy—and I should add, youth, so far as education and a full inheritance of the accumulated riches of civilization are concerned. In a school and home combined, which is the proper kind of an institution for delinquents and dependents, we have begun to give these classes the real training for life. But what I attempted to say in talking about the constructively preventive work was that we must impress upon our communities, upon our governing powers, and upon our boards of education, that your children, my children, all of the children—normal children—are entitled to at least as much as are the abnormal children, both for their own sake and our own. Childhood demands of civilization as a preventive measure that it may receive the right education from the start, and be saved from the necessity of correction.

JUDGE DELACY—Along the lines of instruction in sex, I want to say that a mere knowledge of sex does not prevent wrong doing in children, no more than a mere knowledge of the evils of drink prevents men from getting drunk. A girl who makes the first slip, frequently makes the second and third.

JUDGE MACK—When it comes to a girl of sixteen or seventeen, so far as my experience has gone, in most cases there was knowledge and yet there was not safety. Knowledge alone is not going to save from crime. The fundamental thing is character. But knowledge will save little children, and those of us connected with the juvenile court who have had the horrible experience of seeing little children of nine, ten, eleven and twelve, injured, sometimes permanently injured, feel the need of the development of moral character which is fundamental to all growth and true religion and true morals and true education, and specific instruction in these matters that they may be saved where ignorance has led to their ruin.

QUESTION—I wish to ask of our learned judges what proportion of these children have been brought into their courts through the use of intoxicating liquors by the parents?

JUDGE MACK—The liquor question is a peculiar one. I am extremely liberal on the liquor question. It is a matter of race and descent and inheritance. If you look over the statistics of the relief work of this country, and differentiate the Jewish relief work from the other relief work, you will find that drunkenness is the cause of not more than one-tenth of one per cent. of the poverty. Take the figures in other portions of the community, and it will rise to thirty-five, and sometimes as high as seventy-five per cent. It is a matter of training and habit. The Jews

have never thought that there was the slightest moral question involved in drinking or not drinking. It is a matter just like eating. There shouldn't be an over-indulgence in drinking any more than in eating. There is practically no total abstinence among the Jews, and there is practically no drunkenness. Those who have been brought up on light wines and beer are generally not drunkards. Those who have been brought up on nothing and get a sudden temptation often become drunkards. And those who have been brought up on strong drink are often drunkards.

JUDGE DELACEY—My experience is that men who habitually use strong drink become drunkards. Eighty-five per cent. of those who pass through the juvenile court, pass through because of drunkenness in the family.

THE WIDENER MEMORIAL INDUSTRIAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN*

BY DR. HODGE

Our school is situated several miles from the center of Philadelphia. It has thirty acres of beautiful grounds which, together with the buildings, have cost a million dollars. They are endowed for the sum of three million dollars. It is due to the generosity of Mr. P. A. B. Widener, of Philadelphia, whose oldest son gives active attention to the work of the school. The main building is the convalescent building. Then there are cottages where the children live, and these are conducted as nearly as possible like a normal home, and the children are made as nearly normal as medical and surgical skill can make them. Then there is the educational building where they are given an elementary education, and lastly there is the industrial department where they are taught trades. The aim is not to be a hospital. The aim is to be an industrial training school where crippled children may be made self-supporting. The school is indebted to Mr. Widener for the money, and to Dr. DeForest Willard for the brains. We have been in active existence only two years, and during one of these years we made very little progress owing to Dr. Willard's illness.

In the hospital building we admit children who are crippled, and for whom anything can be done in medical and surgical ways. They are kept there as long as anything can be

*(This interesting account of a new and very excellent charity work was given (by request) at one of the Section meetings. It appears too valuable not to be given a place in the Proceedings. EDITOR.

done for them. Operations are performed, massage is given, electricity applied, and gymnastic exercises are used, until we regard them as nearly normal as they can be made. Most of the children we get are hopelessly crippled. For many we can do little. For some we can do a great deal. While they are in this convalescent hospital building, and after they go to the cottages, they attend school. We have fifty-four boys and twenty-four girls at the present time, and they are in five grades of school—the kindergarten and the first four grades. In the past year these children have accomplished, in spite of their sufferings, a sufficient amount of work to keep up with the children in similar grades in the public schools of Philadelphia. As children show aptitude for any particular line of education, we will give it to them as far as our circumstances allow. Some have shown considerable taste for music, and other things. If they continue to do so they will be sent to schools in Philadelphia, or have teachers come to them. So in other lines. The industrial feature, which is subservient to the educational, we regard as the crowning point of our system. The object is to train the child in some trade or industry for which he shows particular fitness, and great care will be taken to find the trade best suited to the child. We aim to individualize, and to choose occupations which will pay the best wages. We begin by giving them tasks about the house. Some dust or clean, some attend to the laboratories, some sew. None of the children are over thirteen at the present time. Some of these children when they first go out to work will not be able to earn very much. Instead of turning them loose on the unsympathetic world, it is the plan of Dr. Widener to build a dormitory where these young people able to earn a few dollars a week, may get their board and lodgings for what they can pay.

We do not take in any old children, because we wish to start at the right age with our training, because a great deal more can be done for crippled children when they are under ten years of age than can be done later. Preference is given to children in Philadelphia first, second to those in Pennsylvania, and third to those in neighboring states. We have two from New Jersey and some from Delaware. The age limit is between four and ten years. Children must be crippled so they are not able to work on a

par with others, but not too badly crippled for something to be done for their relief. We do not take children of impaired mental condition. Our children must be bound over to the institution for a term of years, which ends when they are twenty-one. Surgical and medical results are beginning to show for the short time of treatment. Also educational results are beginning to show. The children entering the classes show a disposition and spirit and energy tremendously improved. Our children are committed as a rule from the hospitals where they have been treated a certain length of time but where they cannot get educational training. We have two places where the children are under the care of house-mothers in groups of twenty in a cottage, getting personal contact with home life.

WORK OF THE GIRLS' DEPARTMENT, HOUSE OF REFUGE, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

BY MRS. MARTHA P. FALCONER, SUPERINTENDENT

It is not a surprising fact that the broken home is at the base of much juvenile delinquency, especially among girls. When a child is committed to the House of Refuge it can be shown in almost every case that she lacked wise guidance and control at an age when she craves amusement and will surely find it on the street if the home offers no attraction. This desire for pleasure is the natural development of the normal play instict, which, as is coming to be recognized more and more, must be satisfied. The actual offense for which the girl is committed is therefore the inevitable result of a condition of physical and moral neglect, of a mind stunted by hard work, usually factory labor, lack of schooling and good home influences.

When a girl enters the school the unhappy past is never referred to; in fact, is not known either by the workers or the girls with whom she associates. Her thoughts are persistently directed toward the future, and she is shown that the institution is really a school that will train and equip her for life. The school is run on a system of privileges. The new girl enters a preparatory grade where she is studied and tested and directed;

until, usually at the end of three months, she is ready for promotion to an honor grade. All the girls go to school half a day and spend the other half in one of the various departments of industrial work. The new girl enters the washing department. When she has learned to wash she is promoted to the ironing room; then to plain sewing, dress making, etc., until by the time she is ready to leave the house she has been thoroughly trained in all kinds of general house work.

The girls are divided into families with a matron at the head of each, and this family system is one of the best "socializing" elements of the scheme. These girls are, of course, intense individualists. They have never reflected on the effect of their good or bad conduct on others. When pride of "division" is encouraged, when a girl realizes that her conduct disgraces or helps the division, she begins to regard herself as a member of society. This is furthered by the fact that in each division there is a self-governing committee of five, chosen by the girls under the direction of the matron. It is to the matron and this committee that all matters of discipline are referred; the school teachers, for example, simply sending an unruly girl to her "division." In spite of predictions to the contrary, the self-governing committees have responded splendidly to the trust placed in them and are one of the most helpful influences in the school. Punishment is mainly by deprivation of privileges, and in every case the effort is made to suit the punishment to the offense. A girl who defaces a book is not permitted to draw another book from the library for some time. A girl who cannot live with others without losing control of her temper, simply lives in her own room, coming out for exercise and meals, but as far as social intercourse goes is entirely alone, until she can control herself. The great object, however, is to keep the girls so busy and happy at work and play that they have little time for idle gossiping and quarreling.

The girls in the honor grades have a number of privileges not granted to the new girl, such as going to the park on Friday, to a neighboring church, either Catholic or Protestant, on Sunday. They wear their own clothes if they wish, and frequently go out to concerts and lectures in the city.

One part of the training that the girls most enjoy is the

gymnasium. Each girl goes three times a week and looks forward most eagerly to it. There they have folk dances, the various forms of lighter gymnastics, etc., and it is most interesting to observe how they improve under the training. An exhibit is given at least once a year. Classes in sloyd and basketmaking form part of the industrial work and these are specially valuable for the girl of low mentality. A leader of Bible study meets the Protestant girls of the various families on week evenings. Her effort is to deepen the spiritual life of the girls and to broaden their view of religious questions, without regard to sect or creed.

A young leader of recreations takes the place of the nervous, broken-down woman with jangling keys, who, in former years, spent her time in keeping the girls quiet, until they were forced to some forbidden outlet for their natural love of fun. The leader plays games with the children and trains them in little plays, cantatas, etc. Last year such plays as "The Christmas Carol" were given with much enthusiasm. On Sunday nights "Story Hour" affords a great deal of pleasure to all the girls, particularly to those who cannot read stories for themselves or have never acquired a taste for reading. Any girl in an honor grade may take lessons on the mandolin or piano, as long as she is willing to practice faithfully; and the choir also is a source of great pleasure to the girl of some musical ability.

If the girl were simply dismissed from the house when her term expired, in all probability she would drift back among her old associates, into the bad environment that caused her former offense. So she is placed very carefully, often as a sort of "mother's helper," in a family where there are small children. Sometimes, of course, she is fitted for other work, or it is possible to allow her to return home; but in the majority of cases the latter would be most disastrous.

The house which the school now occupies is not only much crowded, but is right in the city, with the usual high walls, ugly courts and barred windows. Within two years the whole school will be moved out to Darlington, in Delaware County, where cottages are being built. There are now three hundred and sixty-five girls in the house, including about sixty-five colored girls. Two cottages, each to hold thirty girls, will be finished

early in the spring of 1909, and about fifty of the younger girls are already living on the farm in an old farm house.

The time is fast approaching when the entire school will be in the country, with the most modern equipment; and we are sure even better results will be attained. Until that time we are using the means at hand to give the girl the thorough training that will best fit her for selfrespecting citizenship.

Reports from States

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

The general form of report used in previous years has been followed, with some additions. The text is divided for each state, under the headings of New Developments, Legislation, Needs and Remarks.

The reports on the subjects of the Campaign against Tuberculosis, Public Out-door Relief and State Conferences, are grouped, as has been done for the past three years.

A very interesting section is the one devoted to Emergency Relief, made necessary by the financial depression. On this subject there are brief reports from 25 states, showing marked differences in the degree of stringency in different parts of the country. An instructive comparison may be made of the methods of the present and of fourteen years ago, by referring to the proceedings of 1894, in which the report of the committee on Charity Organization is chiefly concerned with the work done during the panic winter of 1893-1894. The contrast shows either that the recent depression was not so severe as the one that preceded it, or else that the various organizations for relief have gained greatly in efficiency and in public confidence. Possibly both factors may have contributed. It is also probable that the working people themselves were prepared better than before to meet the emergency.

The statistical tables on institution inmates follow the text.

ALABAMA.

MISS JULIA S. TUTWILER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

A model reformatory for white boys has been established at East Lake.

Legislation.

This last legislature passed a law to establish an epileptic colony. The location is not yet chosen.

The office of inspector of jails and poorhouses has been created by the legislature. The appointment has been given to Dr. Shirley Bragg, the man who "in impassioned language" called the attention of the state to the "present disgraceful state of our jails."

Needs.

The law for a reformatory for negro boys is inoperative. They are still sent to the State Farm. They get no instruction nor reformation. They go as bad boys and come away little beasts and devils.

With five orphans' homes, a need is felt for a Children's Home Society, to place children in homes, first for their own sake, second to relieve the pressure on the institutions.

Alabama needs a new system for its poorhouses. Under the present plan, the superintendent is paid so much a head for the inmates and the amount that he saves on this is his salary. This is obviously too great a strain on the honesty of the superintendents.

Remarks.

State prisoners are worked by the state according to their strength, in coal mines, on a farm, or in a cotton mill, all owned by the state. Those unable for the lightest work are sent to what is really a prison sanitarium. The state made a profit of nearly half a million dollars on its prisoners last year. County prisoners are leased to corporations, etc. Night schools are compulsory wherever there are a hundred convicts together and are said to have excellent results.

The excellent work for the insane of Dr. Peter Bryce is being continued by his worthy successor, Dr. James T. Searcy. The curative effects of occupation continue to be notable.

ARKANSAS.

PROF. J. H. REYNOLDS, FAYETTEVILLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments.

The State Reform School, located at Little Rock, was opened last May.

Remarks.

The insane, idiots and epileptics are kept in one institution, called the State Hospital for Nervous Diseases.

CALIFORNIA.

W. ALMONT GATES, SAN FRANCISCO, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The hospital at Agnew is being rebuilt by the erection of modern cottages, with especial reference to the treatment of insanity as a disease. At all the hospitals special treatment cottages are now being built and equipped for electro and hydro treatment and surgical work.

Three cottages are building at the Home for Feeble-Minded for the special care of epileptics.

Legislation.

The Child Labor law was amended and strengthened. Age limit made 14 with poverty exemption. No child under 16 may be employed between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. No child under 16 may be employed who cannot read and write simple English sentences. The employer or agent who violates the law is guilty of a misdemeanor.

The Compulsory Education law was amended in 1907, pro-

viding compulsory education for children from 8 to 16; for attendance officers, and permits the establishment of parental schools.

Desertion of wife made a misdemeanor.

State to furnish text books to orphan asylums, also to supervise their school work by the state superintendent of public instruction.

Needs.

The state needs a state reformatory and a separate woman's prison.

Remarks.

Public opinion is on the uplift, especially as regards prisons and jails. The sentiment in favor of a reformatory is growing. Also that towards special care of epileptics and consumptives.

COLORADO.

CLARENCE E. HAGAR, DENVER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Needs.

Enlarged quarters for care of insane. An institution for feeble-minded children.

CONNECTICUT.

CHARLES P. KELLOGG, WATERBURY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments.

An appropriation of $300,000 was made for additional buildings at the new Norwich hospital, of which $50,000 shall be spent for a farm colony.

One new hospital, St. Joseph's, in Willimantic, was opened during the year, and two others, St. Raphael's in New Haven, and St. Mary's in Waterbury, are rapidly approaching completion. All are under Roman Catholic auspices.

Legislation.

Law prohibiting any minor, under 16, and any woman, being

employed in any manufacturing, mechanical or mercantile establishment more than 10 hours per day or 58 hours per week.

Women deputy factory inspectors to investigate the conditions of women and girls in manufacturing and mercantile estates.

Written agreement to be signed by persons taking children from the county temporary homes, by which they agree to certain reasonable conditions of care.

The report of a commission on epilepsy was ordered printed and the commission continued. The commission recommended a colony, but no appropriation was made. Probably the effort will be continued with the next legislature.

A committee of three was appointed by the governor to consider the question of liability of employers for accidents to employes, to report to the next General Assembly.

A law was enacted punishing any one contributing to the delinquency or dependency of a child under 16; penalty, fine, not over $500, and imprisonment, not more than 6 months.

Young women between 16 and 21, in danger of falling into vice, may be committed to any institution, except the Connecticut Industrial School, that may be chartered for the purpose and approved by the State Board of Charities.

The bill to establish a reformatory was continued to the next General Assembly.

Needs.

State reformatory for men and women.

Colony for epileptics.

State sanitarium for advanced cases of tuberculosis.

Homes for aged men who are indigent but not of the almshouse class.

DELAWARE.

MRS. EMALEA P. WARNER, WILMINGTON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The new addition to the State Hospital for Insane, for which $40,000 was appropriated, is now almost completed.

The People's Settlement has secured a lot and hopes to erect a building during the year.

A business course has been added to the curriculum of the Industrial School for Girls, which prepares them for situations at office work.

Needs.

New hospital or ward for infectious diseases.

Better municipal accommodations for temporary prisoners.

Juvenile court law.

More public playgrounds.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

GEORGE S. WILSON, SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

Important bills are now pending, including a bill to provide probation for adults, a bill to establish a psychopathic hospital, a bill to establish a hospital for inebriates and victims of the drug habit, a bill to establish a school for feeble-minded, a child labor bill, and a bill to change the proceedings for commitment of patients to the insane asylum.

Needs.

There is still urgent need for more adequate hospital facilities, especially for chronic and convalescent patients. There is need for better provision for the care of epileptics, who are now cared for in the insane asylum. There is urgent need for an institution for the care of feeble-minded children. White feeble-minded children are now cared for in institutions outside the District, but there is practically no provision whatever for colored feeble-minded children.

FLORIDA.

MRS. CORA HAWLEY SEATON, JACKSONVILLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

An appropriation of $80,000 for new buildings at the Florida

School for the Deaf and Blind. The old buildings will be used for colored pupils.

Legislation.

Child Labor law enacted; no child under 12 shall be employed longer than 9 hours in any one day or more than 6 days in one week, nor after 9 at night nor before 6 a. m.

Needs.

Laws are needed authorizing the State Board of Health to take charge of lepers and to take some active stand against tuberculosis; for the detention of juvenile offenders in separate buildings.

Remarks.

Public attention seems to be centering upon tuberculosis.

GEORGIA.

T. D. LONGINO, ATLANTA, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Playgrounds have been established by the city of Atlanta with an appropriation of $500 for their maintenance.

A probation officer for drunkards was appointed in Atlanta last fall, but since the state prohibition law went into effect January 1st, decreasing the cases in the recorder's court 50 per cent., his duties have become nominal.

A new academy for the blind was erected at Macon, Ga., last year.

Needs.

A State Board of Charities is needed with a competent secretary to visit all the state institutions.

Remarks.

A bill will be introduced at this summer's session of the legislature, to either create a state board of charities, or to have some one of the ministerial officers to take an annual census of the institutions located in the state.

INDIANA.

MISS LAURA GREELY, INDIANAPOLIS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The Indiana Girls' School has been moved to its new location, seven miles from Indianapolis. It begins with seven well equipped cottages.

The state village for epileptics opened for patients September 16, 1907.

Convicted women, whose sentence is more than ninety days, and not a prison sentence, now go to the Corrective Department of the Women's Prison. When sentence is under ninety days it is optional with the judge to send them to the department or to a jail.

A growing discontent with the present jail system, and a sentiment in favor of district workhouses are evident. The custom of lodging vagrants in jails is condemned and lessening. In one city there were forty-two vagrants in jail in 1907, as against an average annual number of 674 of four years previous.

Needs.

In its annual report for 1907 the Board of State Charities recommends: Additional provision for the care of the insane and of feeble-minded women; a hospital for insane criminals; a state public school for dependent children; a hospital for sick and crippled children; extension of the juvenile court age limit to eighteen years for both boys and girls; official condemnation of county jails by some central board; district workhouses under state supervision; compulsory visitation of the penal and correctional institutions by judges; provision for the payment of the expenses of delegates to the State Conference of Charities and Correction.

IOWA.

F. S. TREAT, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CONTROL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Council Bluffs has reorganized its Associated Charities.

Needs.

Hospital for advanced cases of tuberculosis.

Remarks.

The development of Juvenile Courts has been a marked feature since the legislature approved the law and provided for paid officers and a detention home.

KANSAS.

PROF. F. W. BLACKMAR, LAWRENCE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The legislature of 1907 provided for a special cottage for crippled children at the Soldiers' Orphans' Home; also for the erection of a pavilion for tubercular female patients at the Topeka State Hospital. That legislature made the most liberal appropriation for the enlargement of the state charitable institutions, particularly the insane hospitals, ever made by a single legislature in Kansas.

Needs.

The principal needs at present are: Specially-trained officials; the placing of the penitentiary and industrial reformatory under one board; a law to regulate the construction and management of jails; the removal of the boys' industrial school to a place where more land will be available; some special laws relative to the commitment of the insane; regulations regarding poor farms.

Remarks.

Since the establishment of the State Board of Control the economy and efficiency of the charitable institutions have increased to a great extent. It was a great step in advance.

There is a strong sentiment in favor of the establishment of a sanatorium for the care of sane tuberculosis patients.

KENTUCKY.

DR. THOS. D. OSBORNE, LOUISVILLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

There has been great activity of late in work for children.

A new Catholic home for boys has been established in Louisville.

Legislation.

The last legislature enacted model Truant and Child Labor laws. It made an appropriation for anti-tuberculosis work and doubled the appropriation to the Kentucky Children's Home Society. The legislature passed a model Health Department law, but this was vetoed by the governor.

Needs.

All the orphans' homes need more supervision and better supervision of placed-out children.

Remarks.

There is a steady increase in the efforts for playgrounds, summer outings, and rest resorts for children and their mothers.

LOUISIANA.

MICHEL HEYMAN, NEW ORLEANS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Needs.

A law for Juvenile Courts and probation; more funds for the Boys' School; an amendment to the State Board of Charities law, allowing a paid secretary and the payment of the traveling expenses of the members; increased accommodations for insane, seven or eight hundred of whom are now in county jails.

MAINE.

EDWIN P. WENTWORTH, PORTLAND, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Needs.

A reformatory for young men.

A reformatory for women.

MARYLAND.

NATHANIEL G. GRASTY, BALTIMORE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The Federated Charities completed a detailed investigation of the physical condition of the children in one of the large public schools. The results indicate that the children are not underfed but the victims of malnutrition. Very few of their families are known to the Charity Organizations. The verdict is that the education should include training in domestic economy.

Legislation.

The importation of dependent children into Maryland was regulated by law.

The Baltimore city charter was amended, in its description of a tenement, from a house containing "more than three families" to "three or more families."

The city of Baltimore was empowered to set aside part of the public parks for playgrounds for public school children.

The non-support law amended. In the discretion of the court, 50 cents may be appropriated from the earnings of the imprisoned, non-supporting husband for every day he works, and paid to his wife and children.

A commission was authorized to be appointed by the governor to codify any part of the criminal law relating to non-support, and to report to the next legislature.

A law was enacted regulating the sale and inspection of milk, insuring cleanliness and purity, and another prohibiting the importation of tubercular cattle into Maryland.

Needs.

Maryland needs more adequate provision for the care of feeble-minded children, also to make provision for the custodial care of feeble-minded women of child-bearing age.

More adequate appropriations for the care of the insane, owing to the fact that the state will undertake the care of all indigent insane in 1911.

A colony for epileptics.

Some general provision for the care of advancing cases of tuberculosis, and for persons convalescing from tuberculosis.

Additional provision for dealing with drunkards and inebriates.

A thorough investigation and supervision of the state institutions and those private agencies subsidized from public funds.

An intermediate reformatory for young men on the plan of the Elmira Reformatory, New York. A parole system for adult offenders. A detention home for juvenile delinquents.

Centralization and co-operation in fresh air work.

MASSACHUSETTS.

JOSEPH LEE, BOSTON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

An interesting development has been the fact that the familiar bill giving the Carney Hospital ten thousand dollars of state money, though put in this year, was not backed by the hospital itself nor by the representatives of the church by which it is carried on.

A number of bills for the improvement of the charter of the City of Boston have been introduced by the Finance Commission, whose remarkable work has been the most important political happening, not only of this year but of this generation, in our state. The commission is only just entering on the constructive part of its program, but the thoroughness and wisdom with which it has conducted its investigations, and the specific and unanswerable nature of its demonstrations of the place and methods of existing graft and extravagance, give promise of great service of a more constructive sort, of which these charter bills are the first installment.

Legislation.

A new law provides for the appointment by the chief justice of the Supreme Court of a Supervisory Probation Commission of five persons, to have the power of visitation and of report and of prescribing the forms for statistical returns, over the 60 odd probation officers of the various courts. The commission is also

to provide for the exchange of information as to individual cases between the different courts and for conferences among the judges and probation officers. Another law provides that any district or municipal court may appoint a probation officer especially for children. Where the judge receives a salary of $2,000 or more the officer must be paid, but in any case, additional unpaid officers may be appointed.

A new law prohibits the admission of minors to places where nickel-in-the-slot pictures are shown. Another makes permanent the commission whose business it is to start industrial schools in the various cities, as fast as the cities are ready to supply the funds.

A bill will probably be passed providing that children under 16 shall not go to work without a certificate that they are fit for it, from the school physician.

The law of last year giving the Boston School Committee power to provide for play and physical education is being successfully carried out; and there is a bill requiring every municipality of over ten thousand inhabitants to have a good and sufficient playground and to add another for every twenty thousand additional inhabitants. The last-named bill I think may not go through. The others will, amid pathetic shrieks of opposition—at least so the Civic League has sworn, and so far its oaths have been generally fulfilled.

Last year's bill for putting the sanitary part of factory inspection under the State Board of Health, instead of the district police, and giving the former a set of some thirty district medical examiners, which was left pending in my last year's report, was successfully carried through. The medical inspection law of two years ago will be made obligatory on each municipality without a specific vote on its part. An attempt to take away the state tramp officer is doomed to frustration, and an attack on last year's Boston tenement house law has been easily repulsed. Fifty thousand dollars will be provided for the new and enlarged site for the Massachusetts Hospital for Dipsomaniacs, which has undergone a new birth with a new board of trustees, of which Robert A. Woods is chairman. The Boston Insane Hospital will doubtless be rendered more hospital and less insane by being placed under state management.

Perhaps the most interesting feature of the legislative year was the agitation for a workmen's compensation act along the lines of the English law. The attempt will be unsuccessful as to its larger object, but it may result in the enactment of a permissive bill under which employers may contract with their workmen against liability, under the employers' liability acts and the common law, upon some plan to be approved, in each instance, by the state board of conciliation and arbitration.

Remarks.

The number of cases of vagrancy has fallen from 304,244 in 1895 to 26,224 in 1907, the decrease being due not alone to better times, but largely to the Wayfarer's Lodge in Boston and to various laws for more strict dealing with tramps, enacted in 1904 and 1905.

MICHIGAN.

JOHN P. SANDERSON, SECRETARY OF MICHIGAN BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES, LANSING, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Attention is called elsewhere to the establishment of the State Sanatorium for tuberculous patients. Large appropriation was made by the last legislature for the extension of the plant of the institution at Lapeer for the feeble-minded and epileptic. That institution is at present overcrowded and hundreds of applications from the county houses are necessarily denied.

Legislation.

The outstanding feature in the way of legislation during the year 1907, so far as it related to the interests of charities and correction, was the passage of the Juvenile Court Law. Bills previously enacted had been declared unconstitutional by the supreme court. The bill enacted in the special session of the legislature, in October, 1907, avoided the former constitutional objections and created a sub-division of the Probate Court, known as the Juvenile Court Division of the Probate Court. Under the present law all dependent and delinquent children

are brought into the probate court and upon examination by the judge of probate, the county agent or an especially appointed probation officer, disposition is made by the probate court. It is also provided that no child or juvenile under 17 years of age may be held in custody within the jail or on the jail premises, but that a detention room shall be provided for all such juveniles except where felony or other crime has been committed.

MINNESOTA.

A. W. GUTRIDGE, ST. PAUL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

An inspector of private institutions has been appointed by the State Board of Control.

The Industrial School for Girls has been located at Sauk Center.

Detention homes for juvenile offenders have been established in St. Paul and Minneapolis.

Needs.

Now that our Industrial School for Girls is making satisfactory progress it is probable that our greatest public need is a reformatory for women.

MISSOURI.

MISS MARY E. PERRY, ST. LOUIS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

St. Louis is about to erect two institutions, a new City Hospital for the Insane, to accommodate 2,000 patients and to take the insane from the City Poorhouse and the County Insane Asylum, and a new City Hospital with a capacity of 1,000 for the indigent sick. These two hospitals are to be model in all respects.

Among state institutions, new buildings have gone up at the State Hospitals for the Insane at Fulton and at Nevada. The latter has established a pathological laboratory. A new dormitory for boys is being built at the State School for the

Deaf at a cost of $50,000. A new assembly hall has been completed recently at the State Training School for Boys at Boonville.

New Developments.

A new administration building and a new cottage have been completed in the State Industrial Home for Girls.

Among private charities there seems to be some movement toward organization. A new C. O. S. has been begun at Joplin, Mo. The Civic League of St. Louis has completed an investigation of the housing conditions in the city and published a striking report, showing that the housing problem in St. Louis is as grave as in other large urban centers. Remedial legislation along a number of lines is suggested, especially a model building code.

The School of Philanthropy in St. Louis has had a very successful year with an enrollment of 42 students. It has conducted a series of public conferences and lectures on charitable and correctional matters with marked success. It is planned next year to have a regular eight months' session with classes meeting four days in the week, and a paid staff of instructors. The School of Philanthropy has undertaken, with the aid of the Sage Foundation, the investigation of the cost of living in St. Louis and of public outdoor relief in the state at large.

Legislation.

No session of the legislature since last report.

Needs.

The first need of the state is an adequate appropriation to support the State Board of Charities in its work, especially to hire a trained secretary and several assistants to inspect county as well as state institutions. Other needs are: An industrial reformatory for first offenders between the ages of 16 and 30 years; a state school for dependent children on the Michigan plan and a state hospital and home for crippled children; a state commission in lunacy to reorganize the hospitals for the insane on a non-political basis; a school in the state penitentiary; a comprehensive almshouse law especially excluding in-

sane and children from county almshouses, and a civil service law governing appointments and promotions in our state charitable and correctional institutions.

NEBRASKA.

REV. STEPHEN P. MORRIS, OMAHA, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The Nebraska Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis has been formed. A Jewish institute doing settlement work has been established and the social settlement movement has been organized in Omaha. Detention homes opened in Omaha and Lincoln.

Needs.

The chief need is a readjustment of the State Board of Charities' authority by constitutional amendment.

Remarks.

The interest of the state, in all matters pertaining to charities and correction, is quickening. The attendance at the last state conference was the largest in the history of the state.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

MRS. LILLIAN C. STREETER, CONCORD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

A new C. O. S. has been organized in Portsmouth. The Juvenile Court law went into effect July 1, 1907, and is working most satisfactorily. In seventeen cities and towns probation officers have been appointed, who make monthly report to the State Board of Charities and Correction.

Needs.

The greatest needs of the State at present are a separate Industrial School for Girls, a State Workhouse for the custody of persons committed for minor offenses, a separate building

for epileptics at the State School for Feeble-minded, custodial care of all feeble-minded women and some provision for the treatment of indigent crippled and tuberculous children.

NEW JERSEY.

MRS. ABRAHAM VAN WINKLE, NEWARK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Essex county has increased the size of its hospital (asylum) for the insane, spending $3,000,000 on buildings. There are no facilities for outdoor treatment or employment, and thus far no thought, apparently, of expert attention in the early stages of the disease.

Additions to Rahway Reformatory (376 cells), and the State Prison (a new wing of 352 cells), are reported. The State Prison has a new wing containing 352 cells.

Legislation.

The Commissioner of Charities was granted power to transfer misplaced institution inmates to their proper class. A civil service commission of four members (salary $2,000 each), to be appointed by the Governor, with the concurrence of the Senate, with a Secretary (salary $2,000), and a chief examiner (salary $3,000), each holding office at the pleasure of the Commission. The Commission on Poor Law codification completed its work of several years and presented a bill, bringing statutes and practice up to date. The bill was killed in the legislature, the opposition coming from the southern part of the State.

Custodial care for male feeble-minded adults was provided at the village for epileptics at Skillman. Five hundred acres of land was added to the farm and buildings, etc., provided for.

A "theater-bill" prohibiting the admission of children under 16 to amusement places without proper guardianship is reported.

An anti-cocaine bill prohibiting the sale of the drug except under definite restrictions.

Needs.

(1) The best licensed public school teachers in the juve-

nile reformatories—this means higher salaries than are now paid the teaching staff.

(2) Proper care and education of the blind, either by private organization or a permanent State Commission.

(3) Custodial care for the feeble-minded adult females. The present system of having low grade inmates in the training schools is too expensive and crowds out the long waiting list of applicants.

(4) State funds for boarding out in private homes tractable inmates of the juvenile reformatories. This would relieve the overcrowding and give better opportunities than institutions offer.

Remarks.

More intelligent interest appears to be evinced by the contributing public in the methods employed by the societies they support. Improved co-operation is shown between public and private charities.

The Governor of New Jersey deserves great credit for vetoing the bill that provided $125,000 for a woman's wing at the State Prison. He will first put through the Woman's Reformatory measure and test the value of the Reformatory.

NEW YORK.

ROBERT W. HILL, ALBANY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

(1) State Farm for Delinquent Women over 30 years of age.

(2) The New Eastern N. Y. State Custodial Asylum for Epileptics and the Feeble-minded.

(3) A number of hospitals have been opened of which the majority are public.

Legislation.

A State Probation Commission has been established and is organizing the probation system throughout the State. The results are very satisfactory.

Provision has been made for a new state prison, to take the place of Sing Sing.

A new State Asylum for Epileptics and Feeble-minded has been located on an admirable tract of land near New York City. The report of the commission, which located the site, is a very notable document.

An appropriation of $100,000 is provided to establish a State farm, to which women over 30, who have appeared in police courts five times or more, shall be committed for at least one year.

Provision has been made for two new State Hospitals for the Insane.

The Commission to locate a suitable tract of land for the New York State Training School for Boys, to replace the old House of Refuge on Randall's Island, is empowered to continue its search. The site will be selected this year.

Needs.

(1) A return to the intentions of the framers of the State Constitution in the matter of the control of state charitable and correctional institutions.

(2) Further provision for the care of the dependent wards of the state.

(3) A complete co-ordination of all the charitable and correctional activities of the state, especially in relation to those wholly maintained by state funds.

Remarks.

The opinion appears to prevail that local authorities (county and municipality) can best provide sanatoria for consumptives and that the state should devote its energies to the enforcement of health laws, general educational work, investigation and co-operation with local efforts to prevent the spread of the disease. The development of a broader view of public responsibility and an awakening of the public conscience, are apparent in this state.

NORTH CAROLINA.

MISS DAISY DENSON, RALEIGH, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

In addition to increased facilities at most of the private or-

phanages, a new orphanage is to be established this year, in the western part of the state, by the Methodists.

Mr. George E. Watts will erect a new hospital, to cost between $300,000 and $500,000, at his home city of Durham.

The Roman Catholics will build a $60,000 hospital at Raleigh.

The Hospital Commission has bought additional land for each of the hospitals for the insane. An annex for 100 patients will be added at once to the Raleigh hospital.

A site of 290 acres has been selected at Concord for the Stonewall Jackson Manual and Industrial Training School. The site was a gift from the town. Plans for a model institution are being perfected. It will open with 25 boys, September 1, 1908.

Legislation.

The Legislature of 1908 enacted a compulsory school attendance law for the blind; also a law requiring counties to pay traveling expenses for indigent deaf and blind school children, in addition to the $20 per annum now paid for clothing for each.

Rents and profits of real estate used exclusively for charitable, religious or educational purposes are now exempt from taxation. Counties are to furnish $20 for burial expenses of indigent Confederate veterans, on approval of the pension board. Activity in private charity has increased.

A Prohibition law for the State was drawn up, to be voted on by the people May 26, 1908, and to go into effect January 1, 1909.

Remarks.

There is a tendency to raise the standard of care in the institutions and a critical attitude towards the county institutions with an expectation that the officials shall do their duty to the inmates. The tendency, etc., have already resulted in many improvements in Homes, Jails, etc. Public opinion is in favor of the state providing for specialized classes.

OHIO.

H. H. SHIRER, COLUMBUS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

Lying in hospitals, maternity homes and baby farms are here-

after to be licensed and under the strict control of the State Board of Health in connection with City and County Boards of Health.

Persons convicted of abandoning children, and who have been sentenced to the penitentiary, state reformatory or workhouse will be made to contribute by their labor to the support of the children.

A law prescribes a blind-relief commission to be appointed in each county by the probate judge. This commission has power to authorize relief to any bona fide blind resident of the county to an amount not to exceed $150 each per annum. A special tax to provide funds is authorized. There is some question whether this new plan will not be found, like previous laws for relief of the blind, to be unconstitutional.

Religious services in infirmaries (almshouses), workhouses and jails are specifically provided for, and it is made lawful to pay for them in the county infirmary, to not exceeding the amount of $200 per annum. Money may also be used for this purpose in workhouses and jails.

Juvenile Court law amended. The new law extends the application of the words "delinquent and dependent children." Persons guilty of contributory delinquency may be tried by the same courts that try the children. Probation officers are to be paid. The total amount of such payment is limited to $40 for each full 1,000 inhabitants, or $7,500 in any one county.

A new law gives municipalities the power to regulate the building of tenement houses, and also provides for remodeling existing tenements for sanitary purposes.

Child labor law amended. No boy under 16 or girl under 18 shall be permitted to work more than 8 hours a day, or 48 hours in one week. No child under 14 shall work in any factory, workshop, mercantile or other establishment, or in the distribution of merchandise or messages. Other new regulations for protection against accident or vice are included. Eight women inspectors have been added to the force, to give special attention to establishments where women and children are employed.

The following bills have also become law:

A bill to provide for the suspension of the sentence of any person convicted of a misdemeanor or felony, who has not pre-

viously suffered the penalty of imprisonment. Certain crimes are exempted from the provisions of the bill. In cases of felony persons placed on probation will be under control of the Penitentiary or State Reformatory. In cities provisions shall be made for the appointment and employment of probation officers.

A bill to create a commission for the improvement of the condition of the blind. This commission shall make a complete census of the blind, noting their capacity for industrial training, the causes of blindness and other desirable data. The commission may establish workshops at various points in the state for the employment of blind persons who have a capacity for such work.

A bill requiring state institutions to purchase supplies through competitive bids.

A bill to appoint a board of visitors consisting of six women, who shall visit all state institutions and submit their report to the Board of State Charities.

A bill to create a bureau of vital statistics with a very well defined method which it is believed will procure absolutely reliable information which heretofore has been impossible under the present statutes.

In addition to the above a bill was passed to create a commission to purchase a tract of land, not less than 1,500 acres, and to prepare plans for a new penitentiary; but owing to faulty language, it was vetoed by the governor.

THE COLLINGWOOD SCHOOL FIRE

It seems necessary that there must be loss of life before the public realizes its responsibility for the safety of others. The Iroquois Theater fire brought about rigid regulations in regard to places of public resort. The recent fire at the Collingwood School (a suburb of Cleveland), in which two teachers and nearly one hundred and seventy-five children lost their lives, has revealed the constant danger lurking in public school buildings. Already the General Assembly has amended the laws relating to the department of Inspector of Workshops and Factories so as to permit the appointment of ten additional inspectors who shall give particular attention to public school buildings, and that all plans for new buildings shall be approved by the

Chief Inspector, and any persons who change these plans after approval shall be subject to heavy penalties. Bills are pending for the regulation of fire drills, exits of buildings, and for other modes of remedial legislation. Some of these are very desirable and will probably receive favorable action before the General Assembly adjourns.

OKLAHOMA.

MISS KATE BARNARD, GUTHRIE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The first legislature of the new state will undoubtedly enact laws regarding juvenile courts, a reform school for boys and an industrial school for girls, compulsory education and provision for the insane, the feeble-minded, the deaf and the blind. There is much interest throughout the state in matters of charity. The tendency in the Legislature seems unquestionably towards the best laws possible.

OREGON.

W. R. WALPOLE, PORTLAND, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Institution for feeble-minded, now building at Salem, to cost $100,000.

New detention home for Multnomah County Juvenile Court (Portland).

New buildings are being erected for the Juvenile Reformatory.

Needs.

State supervision for tubercular poor.

Better after care for insane and for discharged convicts.

New County Hospital in Multnomah County, separate from the Poor Farm.

New County and City Jails in Multnomah and Portland Counties.

Workhouse and Farm for Multnomah County.

Remarks.

Sentiment is being aroused in favor of state aid to the tuberculous.

PENNSYLVANIA.

PROF. CARL KELSEY, PHILADELPHIA, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The new institution for feeble-minded and epileptics at Spring City opened May, 1908, with accommodations for 600.

In child saving work the most important development has been the greater co-operation in Philadelphia of the Seybert Estate, the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society and the Society to Protect Children from Cruelty. The two former now operate a joint application bureau.

The girls' department of the Philadelphia House of Refuge is being moved to an attractive country location, a few miles from the boys' department.

The Social Service Section of the New Century Club, the Pennsylvania Congress of Mothers, the Children's Aid Society and the Philadelphia Juvenile Court and Probation Association are co-operating in a movement to organize Juvenile Court Associations in the different counties of the state, to co-operate with the courts in the care of the children and in supervision of probation work in each county.

Needs.

Separation of the great Philadelphia Institution, known as Blockley, into three institutions—City Almshouse, City Hospital and City Insane Asylum.

RHODE ISLAND.

JAMES E. REED, PROVIDENCE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The factory inspectors report a very favorable change in the percentage of children employed, viz., 4.5 per cent. instead of 8.5 in 1884.

A new cottage for the Oaklawn School for Girls has been erected.

The city of Providence appropriated $3,000 which was expended for summer playgrounds which were attended by 76,873 pupils.

Needs.

Provision should be made for aged, indigent couples, that they may not be separated during the last years of their lives.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

A. T. JAMISON, GREENWOOD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

New activity in the Associated Charities at Columbia, the State Capital.

Legislation.

By a trick in the legislature, the appropriation for the State Industrial School was sidetracked, so that work on the new institution is suspended for the present.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

W. E. TIPTON, MITCHELL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Special appropriation for a modern hospital building for women to cost $45,000, at the Hospital for Insane at Yankton.*

Needs.

The State needs a parole officer; the parole law is a dead letter because it does not provide for an officer.

Remarks.

Politics has for years been the curse of the public institutions in this state. There is a strong public sentiment growing up against such a condition, which appears to have been started by a State Conference of Charities and Correction, which met in 1907 for the first time.

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*N. B. Notwithstanding the high price of building material in South Dakota, owing to the method of building practiced at this hospital, under the supervision of its efficient and energetic superintendent, this amount will provide a building that would cost, in most states, from 30 to 40 per cent. more money.—Editor.

TEXAS.

REV. R. C. BUCKNER, PRESIDENT AND GENERAL MANAGER OF BUCKNER ORPHANS' HOME, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

In our cities United Charities Organizations have come into popular activity and the custom of having police matrons for female prisoners has come into favorable recognition.

New Legislation.

The last legislature enacted stringent laws with appropriate penalties to be imposed upon husbands and fathers abandoning and failing to support their families. Also certain statutes concerning juvenile offenders and delinquent children. Good results from these laws are already apparent.

VIRGINIA.

DR. WM. F. DREWRY, PETERSBURG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

A new Associated Charities in Petersburg and similar organizations in Richmond and elsewhere improved.

Legislation.

A law enacted for a State Board of Charities, with advisory functions.

Pay-patient system in State Hospital for Insane abolished.

A State School for Colored Deaf and Blind Children established and an appropriation made for it.

The opportunities for the employment of prisoners in the penitentiaries and jails, on public roads, were enlarged by the Legislature of 1908. Electrocution was substituted for hanging as capital punishment, to be done at the state prison.

The State Board of Health has been re-established on a broader basis and with enlarged functions. Stricter laws enacted regarding the sale of cocaine, the indiscriminate use of which is having very bad effects, particularly among the negroes.

Jail matrons are to be appointed in jails of cities over 40,000 population.

An enlarged appropriation for the colony for epileptics.

Needs.

Better system of statistics; efficient inspection of and improvement in jails and almshouses; more frequent inspection and reports of all state and local institutions (which will be met by the State Board of Charities and Correction); institutions for the feeble-minded and idiots, and dependent and wayward girls; state sanatoria for consumptives; safe provision for the criminal insane; provision for sane epileptics; homes for the aged; certain improvements at the state hospitals.

Remarks.

There is an upward tendency; the National Conference aroused great interest.

WASHINGTON.

MISS ANNA H. MURRAY, SEATTLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis held its first annual meeting and exhibit. It was a very successful affair, and at its conclusion the officers announced that fifty thousand dollars had been given for a sanitarium.

A Reformatory for adult criminals is building at Monroe.

Needs.

A State Board of Charities and some state regulation of private charities.

Provision for the care of consumptives. Our most crying need is more interest and knowledge on the part of the public in both the state institutions and private charities. The general attitude seems to be that we are so new we do not need to bother very much with charity, either public or private. However, conditions in that respect are improving slowly.

WISCONSIN.

M. J. TAPPINS, MADISON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

An appropriation was made of $146,000 for three new cottages at the Home for Feeble-minded, increasing its capacity to 1,100 inmates.

Law passed authorizing the temporary maintenance of feeble-minded in county asylums for the insane until they can be cared for at the home. The feeble-minded are committed to the home and the State Board of Control may transfer to the county asylum.

Needs.

Institutions or buildings for epileptics and for criminal insane.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

REV. HUNTER BOYD, WAWEIG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

A commission to investigate the working of the prohibitory liquor law has just issued its report. The illegal sale has been stopped in country districts, but too frequently the fines for infringement have become a part of civic revenue. The truancy act has begun to secure good effects where adopted, not only by enforcing some education for insubordinates, but by breaking up some of the street gangs.

The desire for playgrounds and vacation schools is becoming increasingly popular.

Needs.

We need a complete statistical report of all defectives, delinquents and defectives, whether in homes or in institutions. At present no exact and comprehensive statement is available through any agency, and we therefore lack a standard of comparison.

We need a conference, or round-up, or summer school, on these moral and sociological aspects of life.

Very specially there is required a campaign in order to insure the adoption and working of a Children's Protection Act, which is now in force in several provinces.

A woman superintendent is still desired for the City Jail in St. Johns.

Not a few instances occur where the best knowledge of the province is embodied in an act only to be inoperative because left to local action.

Remarks.

There is very little occasion for charity in New Brunswick, except in the larger cities, and happily the "frauds" are now easily detected by means of the Associated Charities. The work of the Salvation Army on its social side is everywhere respected and all relief work is less subject to spasmodic and impulsive modes of administration than in the past.

ONTARIO.

DR. A. M. ROSEBRUGH, TORONTO, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

An important movement in prison reform was made by the last session of the Legislature. The Central Prison at Toronto will be closed, and a reformatory for young men will be established on farm lands near the city on the Elmira-Mansfield-Cleveland plan.

THE CAMPAIGN AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS.

California.—Special cottages have been built for tubercular insane at the State Hospital, also at some of the county hospitals for indigents.

Connecticut.—The Hartford Hospital for Consumptives received a subsidy from the state of $40,000 for two years ending September 30, 1909. A workingman's free bed fund contributed $9,698 for the year ending September 30, 1907. The state appropriation, pay patients, city patients

and hospital funds constitute the support. The New Haven Anti-Tuberculosis Association owns the Gaylord Sanatorium and received $15,000 from the state for two years. A Commission of 9 persons was appointed by the governor to investigate means to prevent the spread of tuberculosis and to report to the next general assembly.

Delaware.—The Delaware Anti-Tuberculosis Society opened a small cottage sanatorium in July, 1907, the results to date being very satisfactory.

District of Columbia.—A bill was passed for compulsory registration of tuberculous patients.

Florida.—The Woman's Club of Jacksonville and Miami are making special efforts for legislation for the public care of the tubercular.

Georgia.—A home treatment dispensary for tuberculosis began last year, supported by private charity.

Indiana.—A Commission appointed by the Legislature of 1907 is engaged in the selection of the site for a state hospital for tuberculosis. The appropriation being small, nothing but the purchase of land can be done until next legislature.

Iowa.—The State Sanatorium, costing $100,000, capacity when completed to be 200, opened February 1st, 1908, under charge of the Board of Control of State Institutions. There is also a tent colony for women and a screened pavilion of an infirmary for men, at the Hospital for the Insane at Mt. Pleasant and similar provision at the other hospitals. The Board of Control also maintains a department of education on tuberculosis, and employs a public lecturer, who gives his whole time to the work. Committees of citizens in different cities co-operate with the Board.

Kansas.—A pavilion for female tubercular patients has recently been completed at the Topeka State Hospital for the Insane.

KENTUCKY.—The state has tuberculosis hospitals in connection with state institutions. Jefferson county has just bought property for a tuberculosis hospital. The city of Louisville has a tuberculosis addition to its main hospital. The state will aid any private corporation by paying a portion of the cost of caring for patients.

LOUISIANA.—The Anti-Tuberculosis Society has been formed and money raised to build seven cottages for incipient cases in the Ozone Belt of the Parish of Tangipahoa, in the pine woods, across Lake Pontchartrain.

MAINE.—Some cities and towns require the tuberculin test to be used in all dairies sending milk to them for sale. Portland has a tuberculosis class of about 18 members, also a tuberculosis district nurse.

MARYLAND.—The State Sanatorium in the Blue Ridge Mountains is nearing completion.

The recently adjourned legislature was asked for $175,000 for this hospital and granted $275,000.

MICHIGAN.—The legislature of 1905 made special appropriation for the establishment of a State Sanatorium for the treatment of incipient cases of tuberculosis. The institution was established at Howell, on one of the highest points in the lower peninsula, and its development has been as rapid as the appropriation of a little more than $100,000 has permitted. Provision is now made for about thirty patients, and additional shacks will doubtless be provided for. Both Grand Rapids and Detroit are providing for the treatment of tuberculosis and there is a general awakening of interest throughout the state in the initiation of preventive and remedial measures.

MINNESOTA.—The State Sanatorium for cases of incipient tuberculosis is now completed. Although the state owns the institution, it is supported by the fees of patients, the charge being one dollar per day, paid by the patients, their friends or the counties.

Missouri.—State Sanitarium for incipient tuberculosis was opened August 1, 1907, one villa being completed. On January 1, 1908, there will be 18 patients present. The institution is designed, when completed, to have a capacity of 200. The county from which the patient comes, pays $5 per week for his care.

Nebraska.—Douglas County has just started to build a $5,000 tubercular ward to the County Hospital.

The Nebraska Association for the study and prevention of tuberculosis established.

New Jersey.—A State Sanatorium at Glen Gardner and some provision by the County of Hudson and the cities of Newark, New Brunswick, Paterson, Orange and Camden are reported. The New Jersey Association is doing an educational work.

New York.—A movement is on foot to secure hospitals for tuberculosis in every county in the state.

North Carolina.—A tract of 348 acres, in the piney, sand-hill section of Cumberland County, has been purchased as a site for the North Carolina Tuberculosis Sanatorium. While primarily for the indigent, the sanatorium will receive some pay patients. Dairy and poultry farms will be operated for the benefit of the hospital. The buildings are to be on the cottage plan.

Ohio.—The State Sanatorium will probably be ready to receive about 100 patients by the latter part of the year. A law has been enacted requiring the segregation of tuberculosis inmates in special buildings at the county infirmaries. Each county must erect a building for the purpose, or contract with some other county. The special buildings may also receive patients who are not declared paupers, who will pay $3 per week for treatment and care. The Cleveland City Infirmary has established a sanatorium on the farm colony.

Pennsylvania.—The last Legislature appropriated something over $4,000,000 for the establishment of state dispensaries

and sanatoria. The sanatorium at Mount Alto has been in operation about seven months. A large number of dispensaries have been started at various places in the state.

Rhode Island.—The General Assembly voted $50,000 for maintenance of the State Sanatorium and $8,000 for a sewerage system. The League for the suppression of tuberculosis is working in perfect harmony with the State Board of Health. An exhibit was made last year in a department store in Providence, 36,000 persons attended, several lectures were given by experts.

Texas.—The state has very stringent laws regulating, and practically forbidding, the immigration of persons afflicted with tuberculosis. There are separate premises for farm life and outdoor treatment for consumptive convicts.

Vermont.—The Vermont Sanatorium at Pittsford was formally opened December 10, 1907. It is especially for incipient cases, and its capacity, soon to be increased, is now 32 patients. It is the gift of the late United States Senator Redfield Proctor, with the cordial co-operation of his family. He set apart $250,000, of which $100,000 is held by trustees as an endowment fund, the income to reduce the cost of treatment of patients of limited means.

The stamping out of bovine tuberculosis is progressing, the opposition of the farmers to the testing of their herds is diminishing.

Virginia.—Public sentiment is being aroused. Leagues are being formed, public instruction given in preventive measures, etc., particularly in Norfolk, Richmond and Petersburg. A law was enacted empowering the erection of sanatoria for tuberculosis.

Washington.—The Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis had its first annual meeting and exhibit. It was a very successful affair and at its conclusion the officers announced that $50,000 had been given for a sanatorium.

Wisconsin.—The State Sanatorium for incipient cases was open October 1, 1907. The capacity will shortly be increas-

ed to 100. It is supported by the state, but patients able to do so are required to pay $10 per week.

Cuba.—There are three dispensaries and a sanatorium for tuberculosis, and some are treated in public and private hospitals.

New Brunswick.—The National Anti-Tuberculosis Association plans educational work for the coming year as to bovine and human tuberculosis.

EMERGENCY RELIEF DUE TO FINANCIAL DEPRESSION

Arkansas.—In one or two of the larger towns there has been a slight increase of relief needed, but the need was met through the regular channels of aid.

California.—Emergency relief has been needed in the three larger cities of the state. Direct temporary aid has been given and men of families have usually been found employment temporarily on public works.

Connecticut.—Thousands of men are out of employment. No special relief plans as far as known, but the cities of Hartford, New Haven and Waterbury have begun extensive work on the streets and parks for the benefit of the unemployed.

Delaware.—Much distress, no special emergency fund, but liberal contributions to the established charities.

District of Columbia.—No marked unusual distress, a few more applicants during winter months, and the municipal lodging houses and private lodging houses more crowded than any time since 1893.

Indiana.—While there was much distress, it was met by the regularly organized means. Nearly all the large cities of the state have charity organization societies and their ap-

peals for funds were liberally met. Soup houses were operated for a short time in three cities.

IOWA.—The necessary out-door relief was maintained, but the situation did not call for any unusual or special action.

KANSAS.—There has been no call for emergency relief and no marked financial depression in this state.

LOUISIANA.—Emergency distribution of about $2,000 during the year.

MAINE.—Up to the time of the report the financial depression has not seriously affected Maine.

MARYLAND.—While the resources of the various charity organizations were strained to the uttermost, they proved adequate to the excessive demands, and the city escaped from "bread-lines" or any untoward demonstrations of the unemployed. This was, however, because of the hearty cooperation of the charitable and social workers.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The most important feature of the year has been Governor Guild's meeting of the problem of unemployment. For the first time—at least in many years—we have had a governor willing not only to pay some wondering and incredulous deference to the opinions of charity experts in the matter of their specialty, but actually to consult with and be guided by them. Governor Guild has gone out of his way to see that, not only public departments like the state employment bureau, but, so far as he could, that private individuals and organizations adopted the detailed, personal and inconspicuous methods which the charity workers approved. In more than one instance he has headed off the starting of a bread line or some other wholesale method of advertising for, and creating, unemployment, by calling in the experts and calling off the promoter. The result has been that even the strongest efforts of sensationalists have failed to produce much unnecessary suffering or demoralization. A most significant and prophetic feature of the situation has been the active and cordial service of the secretary of the Central Labor Union, as a member of

the emergency committee on the unemployed of the Boston Associated Charities.

MINNESOTA.—The special forms of emergency relief adopted were almost wholly of the wood-yard variety. Considerable was done in this way.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—There is no need of special emergency relief at the present time (April, 1908).

NEW JERSEY.—Woodyards provided temporary employment; cities authorized improvements that would have been delayed but for the great need. Free employment agencies were opened. The organized charities were adequately supported by voluntary contributions.

NEW YORK.—The serious financial depression caused loss of employment and consequent distress, but the relief agencies, public and private, have managed to meet the emergency without recourse to special emergency measures, although in some places additional facilities were required to furnish temporary relief to applicants.

NORTH CAROLINA.—No need of emergency relief. Our banks have plenty of money, and we have not felt the financial depression.

OHIO.—In a few of the largest cities special emergency relief was found necessary. In some of them the city proceeded with various improvements which did not require much skilled labor. Sundry other methods of special relief were also practiced, but no large relief works were found necessary. The extreme demands were temporary, and in the early spring conditions rapidly changed for the better.

OREGON.—There has been no need in Oregon of emergency relief other than that provided in Portland by the Associated Charities. Work gangs were organized, the A. C. giving two meals and one lodging for four hours' work, the city providing the job—work in the parks—and some of the tools.

PENNSYLVANIA.—There has been special need during the winter. Philadelphia has decided to push certain public works, paying the unemployed working thereon $1 per day for three days a week. An agitation to collect certain public relief funds, to be disbursed by the police and others, failed. In spite of the destitution, on no night during the winter have the wayfarers' lodges of Philadelphia been entirely filled.

RHODE ISLAND.—There has been an unusual need for emergency relief, arising out of the financial depression. This has been met in a great measure by the societies for organizing charity in the larger cities.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—None whatever.

VIRGINIA.—No apparent need. No financial depression here.

WASHINGTON.—King County established a temporary relief camp, where men were furnished meals and lodgings in return for labor in the woods.

OUTDOOR RELIEF

Although the information afforded in the reports under this heading is scanty and shows that statistics upon the subject are nonexistent in many, if not most, states, the notes appended will be found interesting and often instructive. Where the name of the state does not appear in this section, the report was blank on the topic. The statement, "No statistics are available," may perhaps be taken to signify an appreciation of the fact that they are desirable, at least.

CALIFORNIA.—There is no provision for collection of statistics under this head. The State Board of Charities and Corrections has tried to collect some, but many counties neglect or refuse to report. The correspondent's opinion is that it is decreasing.

CONNECTICUT.—Number of persons assisted with outdoor relief during 1907:

No. of persons assisted regularly	4,760
No. of persons assisted occasionally	6,957
Total	11,717
No. of persons assisted in hospitals, asylums, etc.	3,999

Total amount of money spent for out-door relief is decreasing slightly.

Poor persons without settlement and persons discharged from institutions, who had no settlement when committed, may be provided for by the town in which they reside, at the expense of the state. This promises a large increase in expense to the state, which formerly provided for state paupers for six months only.

DELAWARE.—Reports from two counties, of the three, are available. New Castle county spent $11,600, or $1,400 more than last year. Kent county spent, for the year ending March, 1907, $1,554.27.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—No out-door relief.

FLORIDA.—The amount is stationary.

GEORGIA.—There are no statistics for the state. The conditions in Atlanta are about normal.

INDIANA.—Public out-door relief in 1907 amounted to $227,304.71, a decrease of $6,307.99 from the amount spent in 1906. Overseers of the poor in this state are elected for a term of four years. The present incumbents have now been in office three years and during that time have spent an average of $236,934.03 annually in outdoor relief. Their predecessors during their four years in office (1901-4 inclusive) spent an annual average of $257,613.16 for the same purpose. In the preceding four years (1897-1900 inclusive) the expense averaged $323,543.58 annually. These figures indicate a steady decrease in the cost of out-door relief. The persons aided in 1907 numbered 37,724—17,877 males and 19,847 females. This is equal to one in every 72 inhabitants of the state, a

marked improvement over 1897, when the number aided was equal to one in every 31 inhabitants.

The March, 1908, number of the Indiana Bulletin of Charities and Correction contains full statistics of the relief given in every township in the state during the year 1907.

IOWA.—Total amount has increased this year because of the financial situation.

KANSAS.—No statistics available.

KENTUCKY.—Only given by larger cities and amount is decreasing.

LOUISIANA.—No public out-door relief.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The important facts in regard to public out-door relief are: First, that the average number relieved is growing smaller in proportion to the population, being 18,-161 in 1907, while for a lower number we have to go back to 1893, when it is reported as 16,513. The cost of such relief per inhabitant of the state was about $.31 in 1907, and the figure has been about the same for the last twenty years, the amount of relief per individual having increased. The number of cases of vagrancy has fallen from 304,244 in 1895 to 26,224 in 1907, the decrease being due not alone to better times, but largely to the Wayfarers' Lodge in Boston and to various laws for more strict dealing with tramps passed in 1904 and 1905.

MAINE.—No data available.

MARYLAND.—No public out-door relief.

MINNESOTA.—There has been no material change in the amount expended in public out-door relief. Figures given last year are substantially correct for this year. There is a very healthy public opinion on this subject being created, largely through the attendance of the county commissioners at the State Conference of Charities and Correction. Our efforts are being directed to killing off the township system, which obtains in about one-quarter of the counties of the state. The work done in these counties is, as a rule, poorly done,

while in the counties having the county system the work is, as a rule, well done.

MISSOURI.—A study is being made of out-door relief in Missouri under the auspices of the Sage Foundation. From partial statistics collected in former years, it would appear that from $125,000 to $150,000 are dispensed annually in the rural counties of Missouri in public out-door relief. No public out-door relief is given in St. Louis and Kansas City.

NEBRASKA.—Five hundred and seventy-one families, representing 1,888 people, in entire state; of these 196 are widows' families, 139 aged, 102 sick and injured. Total amount, $48,257.17 for year. Increase in two counties having the two largest cities about 75 per cent.; decrease in all other counties.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—

1901	$170,893.57
1902	209,861.38
1903	241,821.17
1904	239,901.46
1905	244,445.70
1906	223,465.20
1907	225,294.63

NEW JERSEY.—There is much duplication of relief in our state owing to lack of co-operation of overseers of the poor with private societies and charity organizations.

NEW YORK.—Out-door relief is not increasing, although during the past winter many communities were compelled to increase their emergency expenditures.

NORTH CAROLINA.—

Out-door relief to 4,102 at a cost of	$ 83,505.21
Present in the homes 1,424 at a cost of	100,344.02

Total number, 5,526, cared for at cost of $183,849.23. These figures are exclusive of farm products used for the benefit of the homes.

North Dakota.—None needed. Every able-bodied man in North Dakota can have work at good wages if he will work. No public work need be given for this reason. Our only trouble is to get enough workers to fill positions.

Ohio.—For the year ending June 30, 1907, the township trustees expended for out-door relief $243,493.02; for the year ending August 31, 1907, the county infirmary directors expended $200,374.29. In both instances there is a reduction of about $30,000, as compared with the previous year. There has been a slight decrease from year to year in the amount of relief and the number of beneficiaries. It is probable that the present year will show a slight increase over the previous year on account of industrial conditions in a number of the cities.

Oregon.—Effort is being constantly made to reduce out-door relief. Since the panic, however, there has been an increase which has seemed unavoidable. In normal times we would estimate it as decreasing.

Pennsylvania.—From September 30, 1905, to September 30, 1906, the following number of persons received out-door relief: 3,634 men; 7,998 women; 19,958 children. Total, 27,590.

Rhode Island.—Meals furnished by the city at Charity Building under overseer of the poor in 1907: Women and children, 6,298; men, 12,537. The number of men relieved at the charity woodyard during the year 1907 was 6,132.

South Dakota.—Very little relief of this character given in this state.

Virginia.—No statistics available. Amount of out-door relief increasing. More interest taken in such matters.

Washington.—Public out-door relief is administered by the county commissioners and it seems impossible to get any statistics of any value.

New Brunswick, Canada.—No public out-door relief in the Dominion.

ONTARIO.—No public out-door relief. Statistics as to "casual poor" in Toronto are as follows: House of Industry, Toronto, $9,400.33; 1,259 casual poor were sheltered 15,688 nights, and received 42,805 meals; 134 toise of stone were broken by casuals in return for shelter received.

STATE CONFERENCES

CALIF. The last State Conference was held at Oakland, Sept. 27 to 30, 1908.

COLO. The place and date of the next Conference not decided. Prof. W. K. Argo, Colorado Springs, is president.

IND. The 17th Annual State Conference was held in South Bend Oct. 17-20, 1908. Secretary Marcus C. Fagg, Associated Charities, Evansville.

KAN. The next State Conference will meet at Wichita, Nov. 22-24, 1908. F. W. Knapp, Secretary of the Board of Control, Topeka, is Secretary of the Conference. The legislature of 1907 provided for the printing of the proceedings of the State Conference, at the State Printing plant.

MAINE The first State Conference was held in October, 1907. There was a second Oct. 26th to 28th, 1908, at Waterville. E. P. Mayo was Secretary. If the legislature establishes a State Board of Charities and Correction, future Conferences will be held under its auspices.

MD. The State Conference of 1908 met at Baltimore, April 30th. Secretary, H. Wirt Steele, 101 W. Saratoga St., Baltimore. No announcement of the meeting of 1909.

The first Maryland Prison Conference took place in Baltimore, January 16 and 17, 1908.

MASS. The Sixth Massachusetts Conference of Charities was held October 20th to 22nd, 1908, at Fall River. Secretary, Seymour H. Stone, 40 Rutland St., Boston.

MICHIGAN.—The next meeting of the State Conference of Correction and Charities will be held in Park Congregational Church, Grand Rapids, December 9, 10, 11. Address of secretary, John P. Sanderson, Lansing.

MINN. The next State Conference will be in St. Paul, Nov. 14-17, 1908. Secretary, Miss Eleanor Hanson, 609 Baltimore Bldg., St. Paul.

MO. The Missouri State Conference met in Fulton November 19th and 20th, 1908. Col R. C. Clark, of Boonville, is President. Hon. Frank Bowman, of Jefferson City, is Secretary.

NEB. The Nebraska Conference will meet in Lincoln, January,, 1909. Secretary, Prof. W. Stevens, Lincoln. The attendance at the Conference of 1908 was the largest in the history of the state and its results were a great quickening of interest in charities and correction.

N. H. The New Hampshire State Conference of Charities was organized in Concord, by the State Board of Charities and Correction, in 1899. It meets biennially during the session of the legislature and alternate years in different towns. The next meeting will be in Concord, early in 1909. Secretary, Miss Caroline E. Evans, Concord.

N. J. The next Conference will meet at Trenton in February, 1909, Secretary, Mrs. E. V. H. Mansell, State Home for Girls, Trenton, N. J.

N. Y. The annual meeting of the New York State Conference was held at Elmira, November 17-19, 1908. Secretary, Orlando F. Lewis, 105 E. 22nd Street, New York City. The annual convention of County Superintendents of the Poor was held at Richfield Springs, in June, 1908.

OHIO The Annual Conference was held in Sandusky, October 6 to 9, 1908. Secretary, H. H. Shirer, State Capitol, Columbus.

OKLA. The first State Conference was held in April, 1908. Date of the next Conference not yet announced.

ORE. State Conference meets annually, the next date not yet announced. Secretary, Mrs. M. R. Trumbull, 305 Jefferson Street, Portland.

PENNA. The Association of Superintendents of the Poor and Charities met in Westchester in October, 1908.

S. D. The Conference of 1908 was held at Redfield, April 1, 2 and 3. The date of the Conference for 1909 is not yet announced.

VA. The next meeting of the State Conference will be in 1909. Place and date are not yet fixed.

WASH. A State Conference of Charities was organized at Spokane, October, 1907. The next meeting will be at Seattle in the fall of 1908. Governor Mead is taking active interest in the Conference.

WIS. An Association of Superintendents of County Asylums meets regularly each summer. J. E. Coffland, Richland Centre, Wis., is President.

CUBA The seventh Cuban National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Cardenas, in April, 1908. Secretary, Dr. Juan B. Valdes, P. O. Box 1123, Habana, Cuba.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DESTITUTES. (ADULT.)

State.	Aged and Infirm.						Sick and Injured.					
	In Public Institutions.			In Private Homes for Aged.			In Public Hospitals.			In Private Charitable Hospitals.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Alabama	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	3,548	587	4,135	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	.....	.....	3,595	110	490	600	.....	.....	**2,829	.....	.....	.....
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	34	101	**135	18	17	35	9	.....	9
District of Columbia	144	92	236	130	400	*530	333	300	633	52	48	*100
Florida	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	21
Georgia	499	664	1,163	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	965	363	1,328	312	422	734	107	76	183	*179	*172	*351
Iowa **	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kansas **	306	105	411	15	60	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	550	112	662	138	190	328	229	159	378	128	196	324
Louisiana	.....	.....	769	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	905	.....	.....	97
Maine	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	*765	.....	.....	*896	.....	.....	460	.....	.....	1,652
Massachusetts	.....	.....	**5,160	.....	.....	**2,700	.....	.....	**1,200	.....	.....	**2500
Michigan	4,585	,1645	**6,230	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota	478	112	590	530	257	787	.....	.....	407	.....	.....	146
Missouri **	738	174	*912	367	664	1,031	.....	.....	*1,021	.....	.....	*2,152
Nebraska	266	28	294	16	40	56	.....	.....	.....	30	25	55
New Hampshire	**512	379	891	54	159	213	.....	.....	.....	30	36	66
New Jersey **	*589	394	*983	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	5,475	3,433	8,908	3,027	3,894	**6,921	2,685	1,502	4,187	5,865	6,033	†11,898
North Carolina	144	.....	144	.....	27	27	.....	.....	321	**	.....	.....
Ohio	3,867	2,089	5,956	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**

Oregon	105	21	126	22	60	*82	142	14	156	73	27	100
Pennsylvania	.....	.....	7,442	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Rhode Island	238	37	275	100	94	194	.....	.....	307	.....	.....	.....
South Carolina	.....	.....	57	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
South Dakota	170	105	275	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington	304	34	**338	26	29	55	†31	10	41	164	54	218
Wisconsin	1,158	423	1,581	150	225	*375	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Brunswick	.....	.....	84	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ontario	.....	.....	*1,400	.....	.....	2,974	.....	.....	2,903	.....	.....	.....
Cuba	.....	.....	.....	751	117	868	.....	.....	3,786	1,231	121	1,352

NOTES.

*Estimated numbers.

Alabama—**State Home for Confederate Veterans, has 81 inmates.

California—**Indigent hospital cases, M., 1,275; F., 261; Total 1,536, in the county almshouses of the state (called county hospitals), the number being included in first column above. There are also 64 pay patients in the same institutions.

Connecticut—**This number is of town patients during 1907 and dots not include free charity patients, who were not reported.

Delaware—**Private institutions for aged are partly supported by state appropriations, except one R. C. supported wholly by the R. C. churches.

Florida—**Paupers usually supported by O. D. Relief; few almshouses in state.

Iowa—**The State Board has no statistics of county institutions, except those for the insane.

Kansas—**Partly estimated. The State Board has supervision only over private institutions receiving state aid.

Massachusetts—**Including inmates of the state almshouse, now called Massachusetts State Hospital. Lowell and Fall River have large hospitals connected with their almshouses; the patients are included in this number.

Michigan—**Includes almshouse inmates of every class..

Missouri—**In State Soldiers' Home, M., 431; F., 92; Total, 523, not included in above numbers.

New Hampshire—**In St. Soldiers' Home, M., 136; F., 159; Total, 295.

New Jersey—**No statistics are kept by the state, except by institutions supported by state funds.

New York—**In St. Soldiers' Home (in addition to above), M., 2,193; F., 136; Total, 2,329.
†Includes 9,372 patients in hospitals receiving partial public support. To the above might be added 8,256 dispensary patients, making a total receiving medical relief, 24,341, on October 1, 1907.

North Carolina—**Twenty-one hospitals voluntarily reporting, treated 6,374 patients during the year; one-third of whom were charity patients.

Ohio—**There is no system of registering private benevolent organizations and institutions, so that it is well nigh impossible to secure adequate statistics from such sources.

Washington—**Inmates of St. Soldiers' Home number 413.
†Most of the counties pay for the care of their dependent sick in private hospitals. The number stated is for Pierce County alone. The returns for Kings County hospital are included in those for the almshouse.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DESTITUTES. (JUVENILE.)

State	In Public Institutions for Juvenile Dependents			In Private Institutions with Public Support in Whole or Part.			In Private Charitable Institutions			In Almshouses.			Children Placed Out During Year.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Arkansas	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	††	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	†	.....	.....	†	17	13	30	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	123	58	181	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	480	320	**800	240	190	430	420	250	670	*80	*70	*150	.....	.....	360
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	39	33	72	181	32	213	.....	.....	4	10	4	14
Dis't of Columbia.	335	158	493	183	148	331	275	425	*700	.....	.....	.....	245	221	**466
Florida	.....	.....	48	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	176	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	55
Georgia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	623	617	1,240	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,562
Indiana	705	485	1,190	565	300	865	455	406	861	11	24	35	.....	.....	655
Iowa	295	192	487	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	238
Kansas	111	40	151	.....	.....	480	.....	.....	100	6	7	13	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	*624	342	966	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,950	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	1,910	.....	.....	305	.....	.....	28	.....	.....	190
Massachusette	.....	.....	89	.....	.....	106	.....	.....	*3,300	.....	.....	226	.....	.....	**1258
Michigan	152	25	177	.....	.....	.....	1,046	1,409	2,455	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,129
Minnesota	182	98	**820	0	0	0	743	731	†1,474	3	2	5	.....	.....	565
Missouri	.....	.....	.....	125	78	*203	1,152	1,342	*2,494	61	25	*86	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	37	21	58	.....	.....	.....	188	91	279	6	14	20	136	124	260
New Hampshire	.....	.....	.....	201	150	351	428	446	874	29	18	47	79	57	136
New Jersey	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**108
New York	148	163	311	16,172	13,480	**29,652	1,662	1,718	*3,380	28	23	51	3,303	2,887	6,190
North Carolina	.....	.....	35	.....	.....	524	.....	.....	962	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**93

North Dakota	.....	.....	.....	14	10	24	.....	.....	92	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	51
Ohio	1,383	829	2,212	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	157	118	275	560	340	900
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	159	125	284	13	8	21	2	.....	2	135	150	**285
Pennsylvania	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	427	.....	.....	.....
Rhode Island	48	62	110	.....	.....	.....	383	168	551	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	48
South Carolina	.....	.....	240	.....	.....	60	.....	.....	780	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	42
South Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	13	19	32	.....	.....	.....	74	72	146
Virginia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**127
Washington	.....	.....	.....	144	163	307	142	121	263	1	2	3	.....	.....	.....
Wisconsin	106	64	170	.....	.....	.....	250	250	*500	7	4	11	58	44	102
Cuba	.....	.....	.....	317	456	773	52	358	410	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	219
Ontario	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,048	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

NOTES.

*Estimated numbers.

Arkansas—**No such institutions in state.
†One or two, no reports.

California—**None.
†No reports.

Connecticut—**County temporary homes.

District of Columbia—**Relates only to children from public institutions.

Maryland—**No institutions of this class.

Massachusetts—**By the state, 1,008; by towns, 250 (estimated).

Minnesota—**Includes 71 children in State Hospital for Crippled and Deformed Children.
†Includes 257 Indian children.

New Jersey—**The State Board of Charities and Guardians removes all normal children from almshouses and places them in private homes.

New York—**Exclusive of 2,123, committed for delinquency and enumerated with juvenile insubordinates.

North Carolina—**A few children are placed out by some of the orphanages and by the County Commissioners from the county homes, but statistics are not available.

Oregon—**There is a strong sentiment throughout the state in favor of better guarding of children placed out. Almost every agency, dealing with children, attempts placing in homes, without adequate force for after supervision.

Virginia—**By the Children's Home Society.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DEFECTIVE ADULTS.

State.	The Insane.												The Epileptic.					
	In State Hospitals.			In Municipal and County Institutions.			In Private Institutions.			In Almshouses.			In State Institutions for Epileptics and Feeble-Minded.			In Almshouses.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Arkansas	473	477	**950	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	.....
California	3,776	2,226	6,002	.....	.....	.....	46	54	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	36	10	46
Colorado	526	278	804	.....	250	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	1,336	1,439	2,775	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	445	165	125	290	.....	.....	70	30	20	50
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	227	177	404	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6	3	9
Dis't of Columbia	686	642	1,328	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida	.....	.....	*750	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	1,250	1,414	2,664	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	5,119	4,624	9,743	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	148	124	272	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	1,991	2,123	4,114	.....	.....	.....	11	18	29	383	174	557	5	.....	**5	136	120	256
Iowa	2,289	1,759	4,048	425	450	875	231	369	600	.....	.....	.....	121	109	**230	.....	.....	.....
Kansas	1,400	972	2,372	0	0	0	36	45	81	25	20	45	235	141	376	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	1,886	1,546	3,432	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	1,291	400	1,691	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maine	590	507	1,097	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	1,383	.....	.....	772	.....	.....	822	.....	.....	218	0	0	0	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts	4,732	4,710	**9442	333	427	760	115	176	291	.....	.....	.....	†400	327	727	.....	.....	.....
Michigan	.....	.....	5,271	.....	.....	508	.....	.....	303	.....	.....	65	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota	2,537	1,884	4,421	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	8	**25	151	113	264	0	0	0
Missouri	**2155	1,770	3,925	370	265	635	115	170	285	492	668	1,160	.....	.....	.....	39	24	63
Nebraska	1,051	819	1,870	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	13	9	22	80	62	142	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	424	336	706	36	124	†160	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	††	**15	15	30	†24	33	57
New Jersey	1,543	1,544	3,087	1,268	1,220	2,488	.....	.....	.....	10	.....	10	132	99	231	9	6	15

New York	13,584	14,532	28,116	.....	.....	.....	343	634	977	....	....	.....	601	480	1,081	202	140	342
North Carolina	952	1,331	2,283	0	0	0	21	21	42	93	90	183	0	0	0	....	....	114
North Dakota	363	180	543	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	20	12	32	....	....	....
Ohio	5,220	4,741	9,961	0	0	0	.....	.....	.....	142	73	215	714	592	1,306	55	30	85
Oklahoma	.....	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	....
Oregon	809	650	1,459	.....	.....	.....	10	9	19	....	....	.....	**	....	.....	27	7	34
Pennsylvania	4,278	3,620	7,898	.....	.....	.....	312	475	787	....	....	5,860	....	....	.....	....	....	....
Rhode Island	336	456	792	.....	.....	.....	87	75	162	....	....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	....
South Carolina	600	731	1,331	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	....
South Dakota	452	255	707	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	....
Vermont	.....	.....	566	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	405	....	....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	....
Virginia	.....	.....	**3550	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	....	....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	....
Washington	1,012	504	1,516	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	**47	33	80	....	....	....
Wisconsin	1,054	765	1,819	2,422	1,828	4,250	.....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	**	....	.....	....	....	....
Cuba	.....	.....	1,656	.....	.....	.....	29	32	61	....	....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	....
New Brunswick	.....	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	....
Ontario	2,549	2,766	5,315	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	38	35	73	....	....	....

NOTES.

*Estimated numbers.

Arkansas—**Insane, feeble minded and epileptics are treated in State Hospital for nervous diseases. Figures given include the three classes.

Indiana—**The village opened for patients September 16, 1904; whole number of epileptics in public institutions: Insane, M., 257; F., 162; Total, 399. Feeble minded, M., 196; F., 256; Total, 452. No marked mental deficiency, M., 57; F., 32; Total, 89.

Iowa—**The above are in the State Institution for Feeble Minded. There are also 204 epileptics in the Hospitals for Insane.

Massachusetts—**Insane in family care (boarded out), M., 13; F., 262; Total, 275.

†Of this number 157 are in the Institution for Feeble Minded. There are also 382 in Hospitals for Insane and 14 in private institutions.

Minnesota—**Transients, or on their way to state hospitals.

Missouri—**Figures from the United States census of 1904.

New Hampshire—**In state hospital. There are also some epileptics in State Institution for Feeble Minded, numbers not separable.

†All insane paupers are gradually being removed to the state hospital; according to a law passed in 1903, they must all be so removed by January 1, 1909.

††Insane paupers in alms houses included in figures for county institutions.

Oregon—**Some epileptics in Institution for Feeble Minded. Figures not separable.

Virginia—**Males and females nearly equal in number. Females slightly in excess.

Washington—**In state institution for insane.

Wisconsin—**In Institution for Feeble Minded.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DEFECTIVES.

State.	Idiots and Feeble-Minded						Blind.									Deaf Mute.					
	In State Institutions.			In Almshouses.			In State Schools.			In Working Homes.			In Almshouses.			In State Schools.			In Almshouses.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Arkansas	....	....	**	....	....	....	83	71	144	....	....	....	....	....	....	161	154	315	....	....	††
California	367	279	**646	162	45	207	36	35	71	92	22	114	126	15	141	77	77	154	72	9	81
Colorado	0	0	0	....	....	....	**98	72	170	....	....	....	....	....	....	**	**	**	....	....	....
Connecticut	....	....	**201	40	30	*70	....	....	43	....	....	20	....	....	....	57	33	90	....	....	....
Delaware	8	4	†12	10	14	24	**3	4	†††7	....	....	....	3	2	5	†††7	6	13	2	1	3
Dis. of Columbia	33	25	**58	....	....	....	9	7	16	....	....	*20	....	....	....	17	17	34	....	....	....
Florida	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	**39	0	0	0	0	0	0	....	....	**58	....	....	....
Georgia	48	34	82	....	....	....	41	14	55	....	....	....	....	....	....	160	34	194	....	....	....
Illinois	680	530	**1210	....	....	....	118	73	191	55	20	75	....	....	....	266	173	439	....	....	....
Indiana	458	574	**1032	482	429	911	55	70	125	9	1	10	125	48	173	140	134	274	44	33	77
Iowa	567	490	1,057	....	....	....	....	....	124	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	248	....	....	....
Kansas	213	178	391	76	82	158	40	48	88	0	0	0	32	19	51	120	120	240	20	5	25
Kentucky	91	71	162	....	....	....	91	72	163	....	....	....	....	....	....	206	167	373	....	....	....
Louisiana	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	46	....	....	....	....	....	....	87	61	148	....	....	....
Maine	6	4	**10	....	....	....	12	15	†27	....	....	....	....	....	....	65	37	102	....	....	....
Maryland	....	....	267	....	....	....	70	60	130	0	0	0	....	....	....	72	48	120	....	....	....
Massachusetts	721	524	**1245	95	91	186	....	....	*200	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	*350	....	....	....
Michigan	....	....	**800	....	....	†	....	....	114	....	....	78	....	....	....	....	....	351	....	....	....
Minnesota	567	499	1,066	10	7	17	53	39	92	0	0	0	0	0	0	154	128	282	0	0	0
Missouri	197	209	**406	434	501	935	49	63	112	....	30	30	117	53	170	222	137	359	25	11	36
Nebraska	159	131	290	55	29	84	30	25	55	....	....	....	13	3	16	99	79	178	9	8	17
New Hampshire	43	42	**85	120	109	229	11	10	21	....	....	....	3	6	9	15	15	30	2	7	9
New Jersey	210	270	480	33	16	49	....	....	35	....	....	....	13	7	20	....	....	....	5	13	18

New York	955	1,213	2,168	767	692	1459	169	111	280	83	51	*134	221	172	393	893	783	1,676	67	36	103
N. Carolina ...	.....	.....	.....	....	....	324	116	117	**233	0	0	0	....	.....	.....	176	146	**222	....	.....	.....
North Dakota .	40	33	73	....	....	....	6	10	16	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	....	....	77	....	.....	.....
Ohio	794	647	1,441	339	176	515	166	117	283	0	0	0	165	79	244	251	206	457	91	48	139
Oklahoma	....	.....	.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	....	....	**100	....	....	.....
Oregon	35	13	**48	25	....	25	22	14	36	....	....	.....	11	2	13	41	35	76	4	3	7
Pennsylvania .	1298	992	**2290	....	....	....	163	163	326	0	0	0	....	....	190	442	402	844	....	....	83
Rhode Island .	....	.....	**	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	36	34	70	....	....	.....
S. Carolina	....	.....	.....	....	....	....	....	....	76	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	....	....	100	..	....	.....
South Dakota .	70	66	**136	....	....	....	26	18	44	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	36	38	74	....	....	.....
Vermont	10	16	**26	....	....	....	2	7	9	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	....	....	21	....	....	.....
Virginia	....	.....	.....	....	....	....	....	....	74	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	....	....	164	....	....	.....
Washington ...	35	15	**50	....	1	1	13	16	29	....	....	.....	1	....	1	66	38	104	....	....	.....
Wisconsin	343	426	**769	....	....	....	45	42	87	30	0	30	....	.....	.....	117	84	†201	....	....	.....
N. Brunswick .	....	.....	.....	....	....	....	....	....	**29	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	....	....	41	....	....	.....
Ontario	383	392	775	....	....	....	....	....	112	....	....	.....	....	.....	.....	....	....	.....	....	....	.....

NOTES.

*Estimated numbers.

Arkansas—**All in care of state are maintained in the State hospital for nervous diseases.
††There are probably a few uneducated deaf mutes in local county almshouses, though not many, as the state school is so popular that practically all deaf mutes go there.

California—**Including epileptics.

Colorado—**Blind and deaf together in one state school.

Connecticut—**Including 70 epileptics.

Delaware—†In institution at Elwyn, Pa.
**In institution at Overbrook, Pa.
††At Columbia College, D. C.
†††Also an appropriation of $1,300 annually for home instruction of blind, books, etc.

District of Columbia—**These pupils are in institutions of different states, under contract.

Florida—**In one school for blind and deaf, at St. Augustine.

Illinois—**Including epileptics.

Indiana—**Including epileptics.

Maine—**In the Massachusetts school for feeble minded.
†In the Perkins institution, Boston, Mass.

Massaachusetts—**Including 157 epileptics.

Michigan—**Includes enileptics.
†A large number of Feeble Minded and epileptics in county poorhouses.

Missouri—**Including epileptics.

New Hampshire—**Including epileptics.

North Carolina—**Compulsory school attendance laws are in force for blind and deaf children.

Oklahoma—**The school is kept in Guthrie, in rented property; supported by the state. Provision for suitable buildings will shortly be made by the legislature.

Oregon—**Including epileptics.

Pennsylvania—**Including epileptics.

Rhode Island—**An appropriation has been made for a state school.

South Dakota—**Including epileptics.

Vermont—**Maintained by the state, in the Massachusetts school.

Washington—**In the state hospital for insane.

Wisconsin—**Including epileptics.
†384 deaf mutes in day schools.

New Brunswick—**These are at the institution for the blind, Halifax, N. S.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

ADULT DELINQUENTS.

State.	Criminals (Felons).									Vicious (Misdemeanants).					
	In State Prisons			In Reformatories for Adults.			In County Prisons.			In Jails Waiting Trial.			In Jails and Workhouses Under Sentence.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Arkansas	728	27	755	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	2,533	29	2,562	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	589	20	**609	1,077	57	1,134
Colorado	631	19	650	176	0	176	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	510	8	518	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**1,162
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	281	15	296	109	11	120	172	4	**176
District of Columbia	373	17	**390	.....	.....	.....	314	56	370	89	5	94	448	56	504
Florida	.....	.....	**1,665	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	2,386	78	**2,464	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	1,062	48	1,110	1,175	0	1,175	212	25	237	450	54	504	540	45	585
Iowa	432	.....	432	12	316	328	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	**
Kansas	796	23	819	310	0	310	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	2,382	211	2,593	.....	.....	.....	96	31	127	113	11	124	330	31	361
Louisiana	1,752	60	1,812	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**702
Maine	203	9	212	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	98	10	**108	467	13	**480
Maryland	948	82	1,030	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	390	.....	.....	**109	.....	.....	*941
Massachusetts	869	.....	869	832	142	974	955	88	1,043	393	46	**439	1,486	292	1,778
Michigan	.....	.....	1,008	.....	.....	542	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	383	66	**449
Minnesota	656	10	666	270	1	271	.....	.....	198	.....	.....	**130	.....	.....	189
Missouri	2,045	57	2,102	.....	.....	.....	157	23	180	462	24	**486	416	34	450
Nebraska	364	5	369	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	74	0	**74	105	9	114
New Hampshire	149	4	153	263	20	283	.....	.....	.....	56	5	**61	69	1	70
New Jersey	1,198	53	1,251	503	0	503	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	†
New York	3,370	82	3,452	1,720	2,062	3,782	2,953	766	3,719	1,046	54	1,100	909	88	997
North Carolina	638	42	680	.....	.....	.....	874	6	880	.....	.....	.....	465	46	**511

North Dakota	.....	.....	227	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	1,448	48	1,496	805	0	805	1,287	178	1,465	392	44	**436	140	21	161
Oregon	376	2	378	.....	.....	.....	62	0	62	65	0	**65	87	8	95
Pennsylvania	2,020	51	2,071	692	0	692	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,020	669	5,689
Rhode Island	119	0	119	.....	.....	.....	181	56	237	.....	.....	**	299	21	320
South Carolina	.....	.....	754	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
South Dakota	195	2	197	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	74	1	**75	23	0	23
Vermont	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	.....
Virginia	1,629	85	1,714	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	.....
Washington	897	13	910	22	0	22	.....	.....	.....	90	6	**96	156	12	168
Wisconsin	601	19	620	272	0	272	345	28	373	90	4	**94	132	12	144
Cuba	3,622	55	3,677	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Brunswick	.....	.....	212	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ontario	414	0	414	0	55	55	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**	.....	.....	67

NOTES.

*Estimated numbers.

California—**State law requires prisoners serving sentence and accused persons waiting trial to be kept, at least, in separate rooms.

Connecticut—**In county jails prisoners serving sentence are compelled to labor. In the larger jails those waiting trial are kept in a separate block, or section of cells.

Delaware—**All serving sentence are compelled to work. It is voluntary with those waiting trial.

District of Columbia—**Convicts are kept, under contract, at Moundsville, W. Va.

Florida—**No prisons, state convicts are leased to the highest bidders on turpentine farms and phosphate mines.

Georgia—**See some figures re convicts in state penitentiary in text of report from Georgia.

Iowa—**No data regarding county jails.

Louisiana—**No difference between treatment of accused and sentenced, except that the latter are compelled to labor.

Maine—**No difference between treatment of accused and sentenced except labor and prison clothes.

Maryland—**In most counties, no distinction between accused and sentenced. In Baltimore the accused may have meals sent in, may receive visitors and are not compelled to work.

Massachusetts—**No proper separation is made, to avoid criminal association.

Michigan—**These figures are for the Detroit House of Correction.

Minnesota—**Generally kept separate where jail equipment will permit.

Missouri—**No separation except in St. Louis and Kansas City, where the longest term misdemeanants are in workhouses.

Nebraska—**Practically no difference in treatment.

New Hampshire—**No difference in treatment.

New Jersey—**No separation.
†Most of the minor offenders are in care of probation officers.

North Carolina—**Distinction provided for by law, but not observed. A virtual separation because convicts are sent to the camps.

Ohio—**No separation except in large cities, where there are workhouses as well as jails.

Oregon—**Little, if any, separation is made.

Rhode Island—**Separation of accused from convicted persons is complete.

South Dakota—**No difference is observed.

Vermont—**Separated to some extent.

Virginia—**No system of separation.

Washington—**No system of separation.

Wisconsin—**No separation and little difference in treatment.

Ontario—**Kept in separate corridors.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

JUVENILE INSUBORDINATES.

State.	In Public Institutions.			In Private Institutions.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Arkansas	28	4	32	.....	.....	.....
California	504	44	548	12	3	**15
Colorado	365	63	428	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	430	272	702	0	80	80
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	88	38	**126
District of Columbia	202	78	280	.....	.....	.....
Florida	.....	.....	88	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	.....	.....	129	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	327	394	721	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	545	213	758	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	415	205	620	.....	.....	.....
Kansas	188	197	385	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	432	204	636	.....	.....	.....
Maine	138	94	232	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	.....	1,041	540	1,581
Massachusetts	502	243	745	.....	.....	.....
Michigan	745	301	1,046	.....	148	148
Minnesota	304	103	407	.....	.....	.....
Missouri	656	233	889	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	198	81	279	0	215	215
New Hampshire	128	31	159	0	21	21
New Jersey	625	217	842	150	200	*350
New York	1,344	312	1,656	2,123	257	**2,380
North Dakota	45	1	46	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	1,097	491	1,588	.....	.....	**
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	116	0	116	.....	60	60
Pennsylvania	1,046	290	1,336	.....	.....	.....
Rhode Island	377	43	420	.....	.....	.....
South Carolina	.....	.....	72	.....	.....	.....
South Dakota	56	17	73	.....	.....	.....
Virginia	217	.....	**217	.....	.....	.....
Washington	196	45	241	.....	.....	.....
Wisconsin	334	225	559	.....	.....	.....
Cuba	169	73	242	.....	62	62
New Brunswick	.....	.....	22	.....	.....	.....
Ontario	280	65	345	0	20	20

NOTES.

*Estimated numbers.

California—**These are in detention homes or county jails.

Delaware—**In private institutions, partly supported by state.

New York—**Of these 2,123 are in homes for children, but committed for delinquency.

Ohio—**Children in the houses of refuge are not separable between dependents and delinquents and are not enumerated in this report.

Virginia—**Of these 102 are white and 115 colored.

Minutes of the Meetings

OPENING MEETING, WEDNESDAY, MAY 6, 8 P. M.

The Conference was called to order by Mr. R. A. Lancaster, Jr., Chairman of the Local Committee.

After the invocation by Rev. Thomas Semmes, the Chairman introduced the Hon. Carlton McCarthy, Mayor of Richmond, who welcomed the Conference in behalf of the city of Richmond.

HONORABLE CARLTON MCCARTHY: Delegates to the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Ladies and Gentlemen, it gives me great pleasure, and I esteem it an honor, in the the name of the good people of the City of Richmond, to welcome you to this historic capital.

You will find yourselves in the very center of the beginning of the national life of this country. Three hundred years ago some hardy immigrants from England found their way up the James River, and landing on these shores, admired the site on which this city is built.

With the growth and increase of strength the people in this commonwealth, on this very spot, sounded the first note of liberty and the tocsin of war. Since then the most stupendous military events of the present century took place around this beleaguered city, when we welcomed to bloody graves one hundred thousand foes and died for our country with them, and we have honored friend and foe alike with the forty thousand graves that surrounded this city.

But we have not forgotten the art of welcome, and we welcome now with open hearts and generous affection our friends, as gallantly and faithfully as in time past we welcomed our enemies.

We have nothing to show you in wealth or luxury at all comparable to the things which you see in other places, but we welcome you to the historic memories which make this city and commonwealth unique on the continent of America. We welcome you to the midst of a proud, defiant, hopeful, courageous people. We are glad to see here the representatives of all the states of this nation which we have gallantly fought, and now as gallantly defend. We are glad to know the nature of the mission which brings you here, and our hearts respond in generous charity to the emotions and inspirations of yours. I will, by reference to an ancient record, attempt to direct your thoughts to the underlying thought of this and all your subsequent meetings:

"Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal. And though I have the gift of prophecy, and understand all mysteries, and all knowledge; and though I have all faith, so that I could remove mountains, and have not charity, I am nothing. And though I bestow all my goods to feed the poor, and though I give my body to be burned, and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing. Charity suffereth long, and is kind; charity envieth not; charity vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up, doth not behave itself unseemly, seeketh not her own, is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil; rejoiceth not in iniquity but rejoiceth in the truth; beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things, endureth all things. And now abideth faith,

hope, charity, these three; but the greatest of these is charity. Put on therefore, as the elect of God, holy and beloved, bowels of mercies, kindness, humleness of mind, meekness, longsuffering; forbearing one another, and forgiving one another, if any man have a quarrel against any; even as Christ forgave you, so also do ye. And above all these things, put on charity, which is the bond of perfectness. Now the end of the commandment is charity out of a pure heart, and of a good conscience, and of faith unfeigned."

MR. LANCASTER: Our next speaker will be one who will welcome you in the name of the state of Virginia. I take great pleasure in introducing to you our governor, the Honorable Claude A. Swanson.

GOVERNOR CLANDE A. SWANSON: Mr. Chairman, Delegates to the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Ladies and Gentlemen: During my incumbency of the office of governor of this state there has been no conference, convention, or class of people who have visited this state, to whom I extended a more cordial and loving welcome than I do to those who constitute this magnificent body of splendid men and women. It is indeed an inspiring thing to witness men and women gathered from all sections of this vast country to deliberate how they can best aid humanity. The greatest life achievement, is self-sacrifice and continuous service for mankind. You cannot fail to receive a welcome and a cordial approval of your commendable work in a state where sacrifice and public service have been its greatest glories and surround the name of Virginia with a halo of fame that is eternal. The very name Virginia brings to the mind scenes of sacrifice, suffering and public service exemplified in the line of her illustrious men from the majestic Washington to the matchless Lee. We have been chided for clinging to the lofty traditions and high ideals of the past; but, these traditions and these ideals are such as dignify and ennoble manhood. They will make us feel as our fathers felt, that a life of public usefulness, devoted to the amelioration of wrongs or the relief of an oppressed and suffering humanity is far preferable to one devoted to the accumulation of millions to be squandered in frivolous, fashionable dissipations and luxuries. The history of this state exemplifies that we have always felt it was better to give than to receive. I wish to assure the Delegates of this Convention, that you are welcomed by a people who rejoice in the vast contributions they have made to national greatness and to national glory. You are assembled in a state that was the scene of the most terrific conflict of all modern times, and which cherishes with unfading love and devotion the Confederacy and her valiant defenders, yet, entertains for this great national government of ours an affection excelled by none, and which will strive in the future, as she has done in the past, to contribute her part to its glories and splendors.

Standing here in this old capital of the Confederacy, around which for four long, weary years was poured the most heroic blood of every state from Maine to Florida and Virginia to California, I can say, speaking not alone for this State, but, I believe, for the entire South, that the passions and prejudice engendered by that fierce conflict have all subsided, and the frightful nightmare of sectional hate has disappeared in the glorious dawn of a reunited country. There is now no North, no South, no East, no West, in terms of division and dissension, but they stand united as four great pillars, sustaining the superstructure of the most splendid government in the world's history. When General Grant at Appomattox in generosity and magnanimity extended his hand, with friendly greetings, to Robert E. Lee; and Lee, with a firm grasp accepted the kindly hand, the bloody chasm between the North and the South was bridged, and when the sainted McKinley at Atlanta advocated that the Federal Government should take care of the graves of the Confederate soldiers and make their valor and heroism the common heritage of the nation; and when the old Confederate soldiers valiantly served under

the Stars and Stripes from Santiago to the Walls of Pekin in China, the partition wall between the North and the South was battered down, and we became one in love of flag and country, one in all possible and future destiny —the flag once rent now floats without a seam.

I wish to assure you delegates from whatever state or section you come, that you are welcome in a city and in a state whose hearts pulsate with national patriotism and love of country, and wishes to see every state and section of this mighty republic prosperous and happy. The ambition of Virginia in the future, as it has been in the past, will be that she may be one of the brightest stars in America's great crown of glory. The memory of grievances and grudges were never congenial to the soil and climate of Virginia. Even the implacable Indians under the blue skies and genial warmth of Virginia, are said to have learned to forgive and forget. Historians tell us that all the tribes of Indians who acknowledge the sway of Powhatan, the great Indian Emperor, were accustomed to meet once each year and extinguish all the old fires they possessed, and from flint to get new fire which could alone be used during the ensuing year. The extinguishment of the old fire and the procurement of new was an indication that all past grievances and grudges were forgiven and forgotten, dead and buried, and the new year commenced with new fire, in perfect love and harmony. The Virginia sunshine which was sufficient to chase from the hearts of the savage thoughts of hate and revenge, filled the souls of the Virginia cavaliers with a loftiness of purpose, a generosity of patriotism and an intense devotion to humanity. May every state and section of this union; may every individual and family that constitutes a part of its vast population, learn and practice the wisdom and forgiveness taught by the Virginia Indians. If each year all individual, sectional and national wrongs could be forgotten and forgiven what a vast contribution would be made towards the world's happiness and progress.

Mr. Chairman and Delegates, I wish to assure you that as Governor of Virginia, and as such speaking for her people, I am in thorough accord with the noble purposes which animate this conference. I understand that your aim is to inculcate individual charity and aid to humanity, and also in a proper and legitimate way to direct the functions of government along lines that will result in the betterment of mankind and the uplifting of the oppressed and unfortunate. I am in thorough accord with the efforts to teach the rich that their riches are a trust, which, after supplying the needs and wants of themselves and families should be used for the benefit of mankind. Oh that the rich of the world felt fully the weight of their responsibility, and the vastness of their opportunity! How narrowed, unsatisfying and selfish must be the life of many of the rich! It is inconceivable to think that the spirit of man can be satisfied by accumulating millions, not to be used for noble and lofty purposes, but to be either hoarded, or consumed in frivolous and fashionable display. When all the rich of his generation, who spent their lives in luxuriant enjoyment and selfish delights are forgotten, George Peabody will be remembered for his character, his generosity, his earnest efforts to relieve an unfortunate people and to bring to them the blessings of education. I have always been deeply impressed by an epitaph which a great philanthropist directed to be placed on his tomb, which was this: "All I gave away I took with me, that which I gave not I left behind."

Michelangelo, the great Italian scholar and sculptor in his writings has an expression which has always deeply impressed me. He has beautifully said, "The more the marble wastes the more the statue grows." How forcibly could this beautiful idea be illustrated in the lives of the rich. When charity and generosity chisels from the vast bulk of wealth of the rich, there is formed a statue of character and goodness far surpassing in worth any mass of marble that ever cumbered mountain side. The men whose achievements will illumine forever the pathway of human endeavor, whether they have been philanthropists, soldiers, statesmen, preachers or martyrs, are

those whose sufferings, sacrifices and services have been not for themselves but for others. No estimate can be made of the amelioration that would result to humanity if the rich could be taught that their vast wealth was a trust to be administered and not an acquisition to be used for selfish ends and purposes. When this is accomplished the measure of honors in wealth will not be who has got the most riches, but who has done the most with his riches. The progress of the world is dependent upon this condition, and Christianity demands it. In the great struggle of life the strong must aid the weak, and the fortunate assist the unfortunate. We are told that parties ascend Mont Blanc by the guides and travelers fastening themselves together with strong ropes. Frequently some weak and unfortunate traveler will slip and would be precipitated down the dizzy heights and destroyed on the rocks below but for the fact that he was tied with the entire party, and thus the strong and sure-footed save the weak and unfortunate, enabling him once again to resume his position and continue the ascent. This is the only way that humanity can ascend the dizzy heights that Providence designed it to climb. There should be a union, a brotherhood, a uniting of the forces together, so that the strong and vigorous can be of assistance and rescue the weak and disabled. It seems to me that the great captains of industry and the strong and masterful rich would feel more elation, more pride, and more genuine rejoicing to know that they have been thus united as guides with a large number of fellow travelers and by their strength and tender usefulness lead them safely up the heights of progress and betterment, instead of selfishly reaching the heights alone and standing there, isolated, looking down on the mangled bodies of those below whom they could have rescued and enabled to make the ascent. To attain this condition in the world it is necessary to stir the generous impulses and touch the heart of man. Though enlightened selfishness would teach a man the wisdom of taking care of his poor unfortunate fellowman, yet it can only be accomplished by exciting his sympathy and appealing to his pity. Winter is not winter for lack of light, but it is warmth that brings spring and summer, with their rich fruitage. It is love, sympathy and pity, and the warm impulses of the heart which make the strong aid the weak and minister to those in want and suffering.

Whether it is to promote individual charity or governmental aid and assistance to the needy, to be successful we must appeal to those impulses of kindness and nobleness which animate to more or less degree every human heart.

While civilization has brought its blessings, it has also brought its burdens and its new problems. The substitution of mechanical force and energy for muscular force and energy has greatly increased the productive power of mankind. In every line of production supply can easily be made to exceed consumption. Mechanical appliances have increased productive power more than a hundred fold and in almost the same proportion the aggregate wealth of the world has been increased. The problem confronting us in the future is different from that of the past. In the past the problem was to produce sufficient for the world's wants and needs. There is no possibility in the future of the world being confronted with a deficiency. Science and invention in agriculture and manufacture have eliminated this evil which overshadowed the world when muscular force and energy alone furnished the means of production. The new problem confronting the world is a just distribution of the vast wealth now produced. In private charity, in the halls of legislation, in the platforms of parties this question will be the one around which most of the conflicts of the future will centre. In church and in state this will be the pressing problem of the age. The scale of legislation must be adjusted so that the rich, the few and the strong cannot despoil the many. It must also be adjusted so that the lazy and improvident and reckless cannot plunder the savings of the frugal and industrious. The unholy alliance between predatory wealth and government must be severed,

and government be administered fairly and justly for the benefit of the many and not the enrichment of the few.

While government can create no wealth it is the most potent of all factors in its distribution when created. An honest and good government is a government which gives to each the fruits of his own toil and lets the wealth remain in the pockets of those who produced it. Dishonest government is a government which takes from the many, who produce wealth, and gives it to the favored few. Special favors must be destroyed and government must shed its blessings and benefits equally to all. Those, who in the past have accumulated vast fortunes by governmental favors and benefits, must be restrained and the door of opportunity once again opened to those to whom it is now closed under present industrial conditions. Private monopoly must disappear and equal opportunity to all must come. The time must come again in America when every enterprising and worthy toiler must be given an opportunity to make his fortune and have an equal chance in life. We want in America no industrial slavery worse than that of feudal times, when thousands must have their fortunes and lives dependent upon selfish, industrial kings. The temple of our government in the city, in the state and in the nation must be alike purified from the greedy money changers and the plundering rabble. Far more important than benefactions from the rich to provide for the poor, is it for the government to maintain conditions where every honest and industrious toiler can amply provide for himself and family. Civilization becomes a curse when the door of opportunity is closed to any worthy applicant. Any country is cursed where its wealth is piled up like huge mountains surrounded on all sides by barren and sterile plains.

I am not one of those who despair of the future. I believe present conditions will right themselves and humanity will be yet raised to higher and nobler elevations. Everything bespeaks a great moral awakening, not alone in this country but in all parts of the world. A broader philanthropy is touching the hearts of men and bringing everywhere loftier ideals of both private and public life. Hands stained with ill-gotten gains are seeking to make restitution. The time will come when fortunes obtained by unworthy methods will bring the stamp of dishonor to the possessors of them, and the wealthy will prefer a clear conscience and the love of mankind to ill-gotten gains. The time will come when the rich will be estimated and honorably rated not by their bank accounts, but by their generous benefactions. A broader and more intense humanitarianism is pervading the world. We see it in every direction. It is written upon the statute books of every state in this nation. It is seen in the great system of public education extending from the humble schoolhouse, dotting the mountain side, to the splendid universities where now the blessings of education are brought to all. It is seen in the eleemosynary institutions, the asylums and the hospitals, where the blind, the insane, the decrepit, and the diseased are properly provided for and opportunity given for recovery. It is seen in the child labor laws where the government interferes and prevents childhood from being destroyed physically, mentally and morally to add to the earnings of the avaricious and greedy. It is seen in the laws which compel merchants and manufacturers to provide sanitary surroundings and comfortable conditions for their employees. It is seen in the laws regulating fair hours of labor, so that the toilers may have time in which to enjoy some of the pleasures of life, some of the comforts of home, and to improve their minds. It is seen in the laws regulating the punishment of crimes, in which an effort is made as much to improve the criminal as to punish him. It is seen in the rigorous inspections given the almshouses, prisons and penitentiaries where these unfortunates are given sanitary surroundings and conditions which will elevate and not dwarf and destroy their minds and bodies. It is seen in the various laws enacted in behalf of the working men and women, where they are no longer treated as pieces of machinery, but as beings, possessed of souls.

entitled to opportunities and the gratification of worthy aspirations. It is seen in the many laws and appropriations for the prevention of contagious diseases, and the effort of the government to increase the physical health and comfort of all its citizens. It is seen in the reformatories and schools established for fallen humanity. It is seen in the laws establishing schools and universities for women and providing for them professional and technical training, by which they can become equipped to be bread-winners. It is seen in the free libraries, the art museums, free reading-rooms, free lectures, open air concerts, free baths and swimming pools, and free parks, designed for the pleasure and improvement of the great masses of the people. I wish to say that in the last few years no state in the Union has made more progress in this direction than the state of Virginia and we propose to continue the advance until in these respects this state shall be excelled by none. All of these are the beginning of a great movement destined to lift our civilization to a higher plane and bring to humanity untold blessings and benefits. I believe the difficulties confronting our civilization are now not as great as many have represented them. The shadows are darker because the light is brighter. The shadow from the tallow candle is not as dark as that produced by the electric light. So the evils presented to our contemplation in the present day are striking and marked on account of the bright light of humanity, christianity and generosity, which characterizes our age. I have intense faith in the great future of this nation and of modern civilization. I believe there are no wrongs, no wretched conditions that the patriotism, wisdom and courage of the people cannot reform. I fully realize that the forces that contend for the betterment of mankind must encounter strong and determined foes, but I have full faith in the ultimate victory of progress and righteousness. With strong arms and brave hearts let each and every one of us in whatever lines our life may lie, whether in public life, in business, in the ministry or in teaching, resolve to do our part in the great work before us, and endeavor to aid humanity to advance along the pathway of progress, happiness and betterment.

Never before in the history of the world has there been so much work for willing hands and brave hearts. The clock of opportunity strikes to every man and woman the hour of their work and responsibility. Let each one of us align ourselves with the great moral forces of the world which are working earnestly and continuously for the uplifting of mankind. Let us listen to the bugle call to battle and duty rather than to the dinner gong inviting to feast and revelry. Let us cease being mere listless critics of public men and public affairs and become active workers, willing to undergo all physical discomforts and privations incident to the turmoil and strife of public life. Le us strive to teach the world once more to put intellectual wealth over material wealth, and place character above cash. Let us learn to judge again not by dazzling plumage, but by solid worth. Let us teach womanhood to prefer the companionship of men of noble soul, bent on lofty purposes, rather than with those whose sole attraction consists in their ability to furnish the gaudy tinsels and decorations of wealth. Let our women feel that the brightest jewel that can decorate the brow of woman, surpassing even the brilliance of beauty and wit, is purity. Let us feel again that the greatest crown of glory that can encircle the brow of man is courage and moral character.

If our future is built on these principles the coming years will bring to us an unparelleled progress, a distribution of happiness and prosperity unexcelled, and the fair bosom of our country will be dotted with happy homes, whose inmates, blessed with plenty and surrounded with all the refining influences of education and religion, will give to this government a strength far exceeding any that can ever be derived from forts, navies and armies.

At the close of Governor Swanson's address, Hon. Thomas M. Mulry, President of the Conference, took the chair.

THE PRESIDENT: Ladies and gentlemen, for the last few days in this city we have had a number of conventions along the same lines of work in which we are interested here. To-night we have representatives of several of those gatherings here, and they have kindly consented to say a few words to cheer us. In the first place it is a great pleasure to introduce to you one well known in the field of charity, Mr. Mornay Williams, President of the National Conference on Truant, Backward and Delinquent Children.

MR. MORNAY WILLIAMS: I count myself happy that, in this fairest of all the cities of the fair Southland, I am asked to speak on behalf of some who have enjoyed your hospitality, and who are looking forward to this conference as an occasion when they shall find themselves under even greater debt to your kindness. And I am especially happy that it is my privilege to represent a large class of those for whom we unitedly labor, the class which (to me, at least) makes the deepest appeal.

Not long ago I had occasion to read one of Coventry Patmore's lyrics, in which he tells us that he is strongly "moved to love the lovely that are not beloved." No man or woman who has not made a study of backward, truant and delinquent children, quite knows what it means to love the lovely that are not beloved. The appeal of weakness to strength, the appeal of ignorance to wisdom, the appeal of wretchedness to power for relief, is the appeal that moves to the extreme of compassion. In these days of conference we are learning over again the lesson of power that comes, not merely by meeting with one another, but by learning, from our common aspirations, the points in which we are united as well as the points in which we differ.

That Indian custom of extinguishing all the fires at the death of each year, and then beginning the new year with fresh kindled flames, alluded to by his excellency the governor, induces me to invite you to take your thoughts still further back to Ancient Greece. In his "Republic" Plato describes the torch race, in which one runner catches the flaming brand from another and carries it on to the next. And Socrates' words in regard to it, "These bearing the light pass it on," have been chosen by one of our great publishing houses as its motto, but even more aptly do they apply to such a conference as this. By comparison of thought, of expedient, aye, even of failure, we learn how to hand the light, one to another, and thus our work is of double value. The fire that burns may be quenched; but the light that illumines will be passed from hand to hand.

But the volume, from which you, Mr. Mayor, quoted carried our thought still higher. If we shall rightly interpret that volume, nobler than even the history of this commonwealth; if we shall bring back something of the true meaning of that word "charity"; if we shall begin to conceive that charity, as used in that volume, does not mean almsgiving—for the man who gives to the poor may be without charity; if we shall read into the word "charity" that holier quality which it has always meant, though, alas, how often is the word misapplied! then indeed, your city, proud already of the glorious traditions of the past, proud of its historic beginning, proud of its part in the larger life of the nation, proud even in defeat—for in defeat you found the larger victory, and by the simple life and the greater upholding of personal dignity that followed the years of civil strife, you learned your lesson of melioration—if we shall learn that charity is love, then shall your city be proud indeed. Meeting as we do, not in the ranks of war, but as brethren, to discuss peacefully the issues of right and wrong, to discuss our obligation to our younger brothers; the duty of power to helplessness; the duty of learning to ignorance; the duty of love to the unloved; then indeed, after such meeting, shall your fair city be still fairer as the home of a new renaissance of truth, which, in its higher development, is the power to see in the unloved that which God loves.

THE PRESIDENT: The next speaker will be one also very well known in the field of charities, Mr. Nathan Bijur, President of the National Conference of Jewish Charities, now meeting in this city.

MR. BIJUR: Mr. President, Governor Swanson, Mayor McCarthy and Friends, it is forty-three years and one month ago, if my recollection of history serves me right, that the Northern host descended upon devoted Richmond. From your fortifications in the north along the way down to Dinwiddie, there were parapets bristling with guns, and the northern soldiers assailed them with the passion that was equalled only by the dauntless courage of the southern soldiers who defended them. When at last the curtain fell on that four years' struggle, at Appomattox, it was upon a foe that was conquered, but never vanquished.

Another northern host has descended upon Richmond. Note again the fires blaze, but they are not the fires of destruction. They are the fires of welcome. Those parapets with their hard outlines, know no more the tramp of hostile foe, but the steps of those who have had sweet companionship, who are joined as allies in a war, not against each other, but rather a war upon poverty, vice and crime.

One more simile is suggested to me by this thought of that war now happily passed. War deals with realities. "The grim realities of war" has come to be a stock phrase. It should be a stock phrase of the war we are waging, too. If this conference shall continue to do what it has in the past, it must deal with realities, realities in the conditions we are trying to improve.

Let us not do as the Scotch clergyman said, "When you find a difficulty, face it boldly and pass on." No, when we find a difficulty we will face it courageously until we have solved it, or at least made a fair attempt at solving it.

Another reality which we must recognize is the reality of the means of cure. Not theories, not talk, not visions to be realized in ages to come, but practical things that can be done to-day to help our unfortunate fellowmen.

THE PRESIDENT: The next speaker is Mr. Thomas W. Hynes, Vice-President of the National Conference of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul.

MR. HYNES: Mr. President, Mr. Governor, Mr. Mayor, Ladies and Gentlemen, I am glad to express in behalf of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, its grateful thanks for the hospitality extended to the society during its stay here in Richmond.

I thought this evening, while listening to his Excellency, the Governor of Virginia, that Patrick Henry had resurrected and come to address us. I want to say that the trip and the trouble and the cost of coming from Brooklyn, is more than compensated by the magnificent eloquence I have heard to-night from the lips of the Governor of this state.

The Society I represent is peculiar in its nature. It is made up of merchants, mechanics, lawyers, bankers and laboring men. They meet and together visit the poor; and often the laboring man is the ideal visitor, because he brings with him a kindly heart to meet his brother.

Our Society does not get much advertising, but on an occasion like this I want to refer to one matter. Here in this country it comprises about ten thousand members. Last year we distributed nearly four hundred thousand dollars with an expense of a little over a fraction of one per cent. It is a labor of love, confidence, and charity, and all the work is done by the members themselves.

It gives me great pleasure to say to you in behalf of our Society, that we are delighted to be with you here in Richmond, and we thank you for the compliment you have paid our society by naming Mr. Mulry as your President.

President Mulry then delivered his annual address. (See page 1.)

FIRST GENERAL SESSION.

THURSDAY, MAY 7, 8 P. M.

The meeting was called to order by President Mulry, and prayer offered by Dr. R. W. Forsythe, Rector of St. Paul's church, Richmond.

DR. SAMUEL G. SMITH, of Minnesota: I desire, with the unanimous consent of the Conference, to introduce a resolution for immediate consideration to appoint a special committee.

RESOLUTION.

Whereas, The National Conference of Charities and Correction has far outgrown the expectations and purposes of the original founders; and

Whereas, There is some tendency at the present time to organize separate national societies representing the various philanthropic interests, though it is highly desirable that all the agencies be united in one National Conference of Charities and Correction, which shall clearly and adequately represent every form of philanthropy; therefore be it

Resolved, That a committee of eleven be appointed by the President of this conference to take into consideration the whole matter of organization of the conference and report at the next session thereof the possibility of feuerating the philanthropic societies of this country and allowing each of them to have individual charge of their respective section meetings.

This is too large a subject to be considered at this time, and the committee of eleven, if appointed, is instructed, in the first place, to report their conclusions to the Executive Committee of this conference and afterward to the National Conference, to be held in 1909.

Signed—Samuel G. Smith, Edward T. Devine, Robert W. Hebbard, George L. Sehon, H. H. Hart, Alexander Johnson, O. K. Cushing, F. H. Nibecker, J. W. Magruder, Thomas M. Mulry, H. Wirt Steele, Charles W. Birtwell.

DR. SMITH: I think the Conference will recognize from the list of names that signed the foregoing resolution, that it represents nearly every section and every interest. The method of organization of this conference has been a subject of discussion in private circles for years. For example it is felt that it would be more adequately organized, the children's department for this conference being also a national society, if that were given full charge of the children's section in this conference. The national society would be merged in this conference, and it would be better for both. The resolution involves the appointment of a committee of eleven to study the question for the year, that they may present a report at the end of the year. It is in harmony with the methods of the National Educational Society, with the American Science Association, with the American Medical Association. I think we shall be able to work out a scheme that will satisfy nearly everybody. The reason for proposing the resolution at this time is that there may be discussion among the members of the Conference before the meeting, so that they can send their views to this committee after it is appointed.

Mr. Chairman, I move the adoption of such a committee.

(The motion being seconded, it was unanimously carried.)

The appointment of the Committee was, by consent, left to the president of the next conference, who, later, appointed the following: Samuel G. Smith, Edward T. Devine, Robert W. Hebbard, George L. Sehon, H. H. Hart, Alexander Johnson, O. K. Cushing, F. H. Nibecker, J. W. Magruder, Thomas M. Mulry, and Charles W. Birtwell.

THE PRESIDENT: The subject for this evening's consideration is Needy Families, their Homes and Neighborhoods. The lady having charge of this

committee needs no introduction to any audience of charitable people throughout the United States. Her work has been long known to us all, and the admiration we all have for her will make us pay a great deal of attention to what she will say this evening. There is something peculiarly appropriate about Mrs. Glenn presiding this evening, because there are very pleasant memories connected with this church. On my right is a memorial window placed there by her grandfather many years ago. I take great pleasure in introducing Mrs. Glenn.

Mrs. John M. Glenn, of Baltimore, at this time took the chair.

MRS. GLENN: I do feel it to be a great honor to preside over a meeting in this church in which my grandfather, William H. McFarlane, was a vestryman for many years. The pride I feel makes me very humble-minded.

Mrs. Glenn then read her report as chairman of the committee. (See page 57.)

Mrs. Glenn was followed by Dr. Herbet Welch, President of the Ohio Wesleyan University, and President of the Methodist Federation for Social Service, who read a paper entitled "The Church and the Needy Family." (See page 70.)

MRS. GLENN: We are deeply stirred by Dr. Welch's paper. Father Kerby, of Washington, D. C., will take up another phase of this subject.

Father Kerby then gave an address on the topic of "Self Help in the Home." (See page 81.)

MRS. GLENN: We are very grateful to Father Kerby for this message of stimulating help, and we are bristling with questions. I think we all have heard of the author of "The Good Neighbor." It is peculiarly fitting that the third of our addresses this evening should be by Miss Mary E. Richmond, Secretary of the Society for Organizing Charity in Philadelphia, and that she should speak on the subject, "The Family and the Social Worker."

Miss Richmond read her paper. (See page 76.)

President Mulry resumed the chair, and after routine business the conference adjourned.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION.

FRIDAY, MAY 8, 8 P. M.

The Conference was called to order by Franklin H. Nibecker, the Third Vice President. Dr. Forsythe made the invocation.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is with very great pleasure I turn over this session of the Conference to the chairman of the Committee on Criminals, their Punishment and Reformation, Mr. W. H. Whittaker, Superintendent of the Indiana Reformatory, Jeffersonville, Indiana.

Mr. Whittaker read the report of the Committee on Criminals, Their Punishment and Reformation. (See page 162.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I hoped to have two other gentlemen on the program, but in their absence I have some splendid volunteers to discuss this paper. I will call on the chairman of this session, Mr. Nibecker.

After an address by Mr. Nibecker (see page 188), one by Mrs. J. Ellen Foster (p. 189), and some further discussion, the Third Vice President resumed the chair.

The Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting, through its elected chairman, Mr. J. B. Montgomery, then announced a report in favor of Buffalo, N. Y., for the place, the time to be left to the Executive Committee.

On motion and second the report was adopted.

THIRD GENERAL SESSION.

SATURDAY, MAY 9, 8 P. M.

This meeting was presided over by the First Vice President, Mr. O. K. Cushing, of California. Prayer was offered by Dr. R. W. Forsythe, of St. Paul's Church.

THE CHAIRMAN: The question to be considered by the Conference this evening dates back to the dark ages, when those who were afflicted with the maladies that disturb the natural operation of the mind, were treated with the utmost cruelty. Shackles and dungeons were their share. They were supposed to be possessed of evil spirits, and were punished for witchcraft and wickedness. The methods of to-day are different, but the problem is ever the same, and it is the problem that brings us together this evening. I have great pleasure in introducing as the chairman of the committee, Dr. J. T. Searcy, Superintendent of Alabama Insane Hospital.

Dr. Searcy read the report of the committee. (See page 286.)

After reading his paper, Dr. Searcy took the chair and presided during the remainder of the session.

THE CHAIRMAN: According to our program, Dr. Albert Warren Ferris, President of the New York State Commission in Lunacy, who is abundantly able to give a plea for the chronic insane, will read the next paper. I am glad to introduce Dr. Ferris.

Dr. Ferris read his paper on the topic of "A Plea for the Chronic Insane." (See page 303.)

THE CHAIRMAN: We have another talk on the program by Dr. William F. Drewry, Superintendent Central Hospital for the Insane, Petersburg, Va. We all in this portion of the country look upon Dr. Drewry as a very practical man in his specialty. He has attracted the attention not only of his own state, but of the whole country. I am glad to introduce Dr. Drewry.

Dr. Drewry read a paper entitled "Care and Condition of the Insane in Virginia." (See page 307.)

After some discussion the First Vice President resumed the chair.

Mr. H. H. Shirer, Secretary of the Ohio State Board of Charities and Correction, offered the following resolution:

Inasmuch as a former president of this association has died within the past year, I move that a committee of three be appointed to draft a suitable memorial to be presented next Tuesday evening at the session on State Supervision.

The matter was referred to the committee on resolutions of which the mover of the resolution was a member.

FOURTH GENERAL SESSION.

SUNDAY, MAY 10, 8 P. M.

Miss Frances G. Curtis, Chairman of the Committee on Children, presided at this meeting and presented a brief statement for the committee (page 337), after which Professor Hand, of the University of South Carolina, was introduced and read a paper on Compulsory Education. (See page 338.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Dr. A. J. McKelway, Assistant Secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, is the next speaker.

Dr. McKelway read a paper entitled "Child Labor and Citizenship," (See page 351.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Miss Jean Gordon, of New Orleans, will tell us something of the work of the children in the factories.

Miss Gordon read a paper entitled "Factory Inspection." (See page 346.)

THE CHAIRMAN: In order that we may have a little encouragement in the blackness of the aspect of child labor, I will ask Mr. Owen R. Lovejoy, Secretary of the Child Labor League, to give us some figures on the work accomplished last year. (For Mr. Lovejoy's address, see page 363.)

THE CHAIRMAN: The next speaker is Miss Jane Addams, the founder of Hull House, Chicago. Miss Addams needs no introduction to an American audience.

Miss Jane Addams delivered an address entitled "Child Labor and Education." (See page 364.)

FIFTH GENERAL SESSION.

MONDAY, MAY 11, 8 P. M.

This meeting was presided over by Mr. O. K. Cushing, the First Vice-President.

THE CHAIRMAN: Mr. Johnson, the General Secretary, wishes to make a few remarks.

MR. ALEXANDER JOHNSON: North Carolina was rather unfairly spoken of last evening if the report I get is true, with regard to illiteracy and school conditions. Only a few days ago there was a very complimentary article in one of the Richmond papers headlined: "Build a New School Each Day in the Year." This report shows that the progress in North Carolina has been remarkable in these last few years. I am told that the statistics presented to you last night were for the year 1900 . Eight years is a long time in this country. In North Carolina the value of school property has quadrupled, and they have built in five years, eighteen hundred and ninety-one new public school houses. The Governor of that state conducted an educational campaign all over the state.

He went to almost every part of it, and interested all kinds of people in the fact that they were behind, and invited them to come to the front. To any one who loves his state as the North Carolinian does, it is a little hard to come up to Richmond, the capital of the South, and hear his state unfairly run down. I speak for a lady who is too modest to do it for herself, to assure you that North Carolina is not so far behind; and if behind it knows it, and is trying hard to catch up with the procession.

THE CHAIRMAN: The Chairman of the Committee on Organization for 1909, Mr. Amos W. Butler, has a report to present.

Mr. Butler then read the report of the Committee on Organization. (See page 501.)

THE CHAIRMAN: The report is unanimously adopted, and the committee will be discharged.

The papers to which we are to listen this evening treat on a subject that will interest us. I take great pleasure in introducing to you Dr. Walter Lindley, Director of the California Hospital, Los Angeles.

Dr. Lindley read a paper entitled "The National Outlook for Health." (See page 111.)

Dr. W. H. Wiley, Chief of the Bureau of Chemistry, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, made an address on the subject of the "Importance of Pure Food and Drugs in Relation to Public Health." (See page 120.)

THE CHAIRMAN: We are very glad to have with us this evening a gentleman who will give us a paper on the "Negro's Outlook for Health." I take great pleasure in introducing the Reverend Dr. Beverly Warner, Rector of Trinity Church, New Orleans.

Dr. Beverly Warner read a paper entitled "The Negro's Outlook for Health." (See page 123.)

THE CHAIRMAN: This interesting subject is now open for discussion by the Conference.

After some discussion the meeting adjourned.

SIXTH GENERAL SESSION

TUESDAY, MAY 12, 8 P. M.

The Conference was called to order by the First Vice President and prayer was offered by Rev. Dr. Forsythe.

THE CHAIRMAN: The Conference meets this evening to discuss a subject which has been ever uppermost in the minds of those who have been interested in this Conference—State Supervision. I take great pleasure in introducing as Chairman of the evening, Mr. Rutherford H. Platt, Member of the Ohio State Board of Charities.

Mr. Platt read the report of the Committee on State Supervision. (See page 18.)

THE CHAIRMAN: We will now hear from Mr. Amos W. Butler, our ever-faithful member and ex-president.

Mr. Butler read a paper entitled "The Board of State Charities and the People." (See page 43.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I have the pleasure now to introduce a lady who is at home in the state of Virginia, and who will speak to us on a very timely topic, Mrs. Kate Waller Barrett, of Alexandria, Va.

Mrs. Barrett read a paper entitled "The Value and Need of State Supervision for Both Public and Private Charities." (See page 30.)

THE CHAIRMAN: We will now have the pleasure of hearing a representative from the new state of Oklahoma, Miss Kate Barnard, who is leader in the charity work of that state and who was recently elected the First Commissioner of Public Charities and Correction, and who is also President of the Oklahoma State Conference.

Miss Barnard gave an address entitled "Shaping the Destinies of a New State." (See page 36.)

After some discussion the meeting adjourned.

SEVENTH GENERAL SESSION.

WEDNESDAY, MAY 13, 8 P. M.

The Conference was called to order by the First Vice President.

DR. O. K. CUSHING: The program this evening has to deal with the unfortunate classes. The regularly appointed chairman of the committee whose report we are to consider this evening, Miss Mattie Gundry, of Falls Church, Va., is not here owing to the serious illness of her mother. In her absence we are favored in having with us one who is an authority on this subject, and who will act as the Chairman of the evening, Mr. Edward R. Johnstone, Superintendent of the New Jersey Institution for the Feeble-Minded.

THE CHAIRMAN: I have a great deal of pleasure in introducing to you one who is doing God's work, and doing it well and thoroughly for the very least of His creatures—Mrs. M. C. Dunphy, Superintendent of Children's Hospitals, Randall's Island, N. Y.

Mrs. Dunphy read a paper entitled "Modern Ideas of Education as Applied to the Defectives." (See page 325.)

The Chairman, Mr. Johnstone, then read a paper entitled "Practical Provision for the Mentally Deficient." (See page 316.)

THE CHAIRMAN: The next address will be by Mr. Johnson, Secretary of the Conference and formerly Superintendent of the Indiana School for the Feeble Minded.

Mr. Johnson gave an address on the subject of Custodial Care. (See page 333.)

After some discussion the chairman of the committee placed the Conference again in the hands of the Vice President, Mr. Cushing.

Dr. Cushing resumed the chair.

THE CHAIRMAN: Mr. Johnson has some information for us which we will now hear.

Mr. Johnson here read the report of the Executive Committee, for the Conference year 1907-1908, which is as follows:

REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

During the year since the last Conference the Executive Committee has held six meetings. At the first, in New York city, July 11th, at which time the decision as to the general and sectional meetings was arrived at, the secretary was instructed to condense the conference volume for 1907 as much as possible; and routine matter with regard to the Treasurer and Secretary was disposed of.

The second meeting was held in Chicago, September 16th, when the present press and publicity scheme was adopted—a scheme which has worked out remarkably well, and has secured a larger amount of newspaper notices than the Conference has enjoyed for many years past. That includes a thousand words—five hundred words each in the morning and in the night dispatches, to nine hundred and fifty newspapers. These one thousand words have been prepared by Mr. Steele, the Chairman of our Press and Publicity Committee, by agreement with Mr. Melvin Stone, and sent by telegram at the expense of the Associated Press.

The third meeting was at Jamestown on the 28th, 29th and 30th of October. Here the Committee met with representatives of Richmond to

discuss such matters as the best time to hold the Conference, the date being thn fixed, the arrangements for evening meetings, the use of Sunday, and other matters. At this meeting the Committee agreed to raise the price of the volume from $1.50 to $2.00.

The fourth meeting was held in the City of Richmond on March 21st; at this time the local committee was appointed and the arrangements for the Conference sessions were consummated.

The fifth and sixth meetings have been in Richmond on the 6th and 13th of May.

At the fifth meeting the financial reports of the Treasurer and Secretary were presented, showing receipts from all sources during the year, $8,452, and a total expenditure of $9,348, balance on hand being $1,220.42.

A special committee was appointed, whose duty it shall be to secure, as far as possible, the full attendance of all members of State Boards of Charities, State Boards of Control, and similar administrative and supervising bodies, as active members of the National Conference.

At the sixth meeting held on May 13th in the afternoon, the Committee conferred with the new committee and the incoming President, and general plans for the sessions of next year were discussed.

At this meeting the Secretary was unanimously instructed by the Executive Committee to keep the size of the Conference Volume down to 600 pages, all told. In order to do this, and also to give the more valuable papers read at the section meetings he was authorized to condense, in his judgment, the various papers presented, retaining the essential features of each, and especially giving as nearly in full as possible all those papers which have presented a new subject, or new phases of an old subject.

Mr. Johnson also read the report of the Committee an Credentials, which is as follows:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CREDENTIALS.

There have been in attendance at the meetings as far as registered, 905 persons, of whom 721 are registered as members of the Conference, and 184 as visitors or delegates, but not members. These came from the following states:

Alabama, 4; Arkansas, 1; California, 5; Colorado, 4; Canada, 2; Connecticut, 13; Delaware, 7; District of Columbia, 33; Florida, 2; Georgia, 11; Illinois, 37; Indiana, 33; Iowa, 7; Kansas, 3; Kentucky, 23; Louisiana, 3; Massachusetts, 78; Maine, 22; Maryland, 59; Minnesota, 14; Missouri, 24; Michigan, 9; Montana, 2; Nebraska, 4; New Jersey, 32; New York, 163; North Carolina, 7; Ohio, 80; Oklahoma, 4; Oregon, 1; Pennsylvania, 54; Rhode Island, 18; South Carolina, 2. South Dakota, 3; Tennessee, 7; Texas, 1; Utah, 3; Virginia, 122; Vermont, 1; Washington, 2; West Virginia, 2; Wisconsin, 12; Hawaiian Islands, 1; Sweden, 1; in all representing 43 states, territories, provinces and kingdoms.

In the order of numbers of delegates they are as follows:

New York, 163; Virginia, 122; Ohio, 80; Massachusetts, 78; Maryland, 59; Pennsylvania, 54; Illinois, 37; District of Columbia, 33; Indiana, 33; New Jersey, 32; Missouri, 24; Kentucky, 23; Maine, 22; Rhode Island, 18; Minnesota, 14; Connecticut, 13; Wisconsin, 12; Georgia, 11; Michigan, 9; North Carolina, Delaware, Iowa, Tennessee, each 7; California, 5; Colorado, Oklahoma, Alabama, Nebraska, each 4; Louisiana, South Dakota, Kansas, Utah, each 3; Washington, West Virginia, South Carolina, Montana, Canada, Florida, each 2; Arkansas, Oregon, Texas, Vermont, Hawaiian Islands, Sweden, each 1.

Notices were received from governors of states and mayors of cities of the appointment of 565 official delegates, of whom 60 have been present, the majority of whom have registered as members and paid their membership fee.

THE CHAIRMAN—If there are no objections, these reports of the Executive Committee and the Committee on Credentials will be accepted and filed.

The Chairman then presented a letter received from President Mulry in which he explained that public business of a most important nature had rendered it imperative that he should go to New York. He expressed his most hearty thanks to the citizens of Virginia and of Richmond for their splendid co-operation in the meetings of the Conference and to all the officers and members, who had done their whole duty so faithfully. He declared his great satisfaction at the election of Mr. Bicknell as President for next year and his warmest wishes for a successful conference under his guidance. He assured the conference of the faithful co-operation of himself and such organizations as he could influence in future, and ended by expressing a hope that the good mutual understanding that had appeared to be established between the various charitable bodies who had met so nearly together, might long continue.

THE CHAIRMAN—The Committee on Resolutions will present its report through its Chairman, Mr. Brackett.

Mr. Brackett read the report of the Committee on Resolutions, which is as follows:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

It is the sad duty of this session of the Conference to record the recent death of Lucius M. Storrs, of Michigan, an ex-president and valuable member of the Conference.

Mr. Storrs was from New York state. He served in the Federal army in the Civil war, rising to be captain, and was an active member of the Loyal Legion. Then he became a successful business man in the northwest. Twenty-three years ago, he was appointed secretary of the State Board of Corrections and Charity of Michigan. Since then he has been a constant attendant at the sessions of the Conference. For a year or more he was its secretary, and he was president of the session which met in Nashville in 1894. For years he was corresponding secretary for Michigan.

The Board of Corrections and Charity of Michigan has been a very effective body, and Mr. Storrs was pre-eminently one of its guiding spirits. In the councils of this Conference he was wise. He was a genial man. To his friends he was an affectionate friend. This Conference enters on its record this expression of its loss in his death, and sends a copy of the resolution to his family with a sincere word of sympathy.

MR. BRACKETT: I move, Mr. Chairman, that this resolution be adopted.

MR. ALEXANDER JOHNSON: I second the motion. (Unanimously carried.)

Mr. Brackett then read Resolution No 2, as follows:

The members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, meeting at Richmond, Va., are mindful of the debt which they and many owe to all who have helped to build up the Conference, and they instruct the secretary to send hearty greetings to the ex-presidents not able to attend this session.

Roeliff Brinkerhoff, of Ohio.
Frank B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts.
Fred H. Wines, of Illinois.
Wm. P. Letchworth, of New York State.
Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, of Michigan.
Robert Treat Paine, of Massachusetts.
Chas. R. Henderson, of Illinois.
Chas. E. Faulkner, of Minnesota.
Timothy Nicholson, of Indiana.

MR. BRACKETT: I move that this resolution be adopted. (Seconded and unanimously carried.)

Mr. Brackett then read Resolution No. 3, which is as follows:

The members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, meeting in Richmond, Va., unite in heartiest thanks to all in Virginia who have helped to make their stay in this beautiful city so pleasant and this session of the Conference so successful. It will indeed be memorable. Especially should thanks be given to the following persons and agencies:

To his Excellency, the Governor of the Commonwealth, for his words of welcome, and the facilities for meeting places in the capitol. An unusually large number of the State Delegates were appointed by him to this session. And hearty thanks are given to the Governor and Mrs. Swanson for the reception at the Executive Mansion.

Thanks are given to his Honor, the Mayor, for his welcome, and to the City Government for the use of the Council Chamber for a meeting place.

Much praise is due the Local Committee, under the lead of Mr. R. A. Lancaster, Jr., Chairman, and Mr. R. S. Tuck, Secretary; and to the Ladies' Committee whose leader was Mrs. Purcell. Especially should be mentioned the great pleasure given by the boat ride on the James river. The women of the Conference have appreciated the courtesies extended them by the Woman's club, of Richmond.

Praise is due the press, and no invidious comparisons are made if in this connection is mentioned the name of Mr. John Stewart Bryan. By an arrangement of the Associated Press, daily reports have gone over the whole country.

The Conference has received courtesies, which it gratefully acknowledges, from Boards of Management and officers of many local institutions and agencies; especially would it thank the Rector and Vestry of St. Paul's Church, and the officers of the Mechanics' Institute, for facilities so admirably arranged for meetings.

Noteworthy has been the marked interest in the Conference by the clergy of the city of all denominations. Many of them on Sunday last preached or arranged for Conference members to speak on the significance and lessons of the Conference.

MR. BRACKETT: I move the adoption of this resolution.

MR. WENTWORTH, of Maine: Ladies and gentlemen of the Conference, I rise to second this motion of Dr. Brackett. In doing so I wish to express my own deep gratification to the people of this city and state for all that they have done to make this stay of ours so happy for us and so profitable for this Conference. I am not only expressing my own personal gratification, but I believe I am expressing the feeling of every member of this Conference. I am one of the twenty-two delegates from the state of Maine, and I know I am representing these twenty-two when I say there are no hearts in this great nation of ours that beat more kindly and more affectionately for the people of Virginia, than the people who live on the rock-bound coast of Maine. As I have looked at these magnificent statues so very numerous which you have erected in honor of the great men of Virginia, I have felt that any people who so honors its heroes as you have done is a people of the highest ideals. And people of the highest ideals are those who make the greatest accomplishments. The history of Virginia is the history of Maine. Her patriotism is our patriotism. We are glad tonight that under this one glorious flag of ours—the Star Spangled Banner—we can meet together and enjoy each other. We feel under the greatest obligations to you and all the people of Virginia. You have showered your blessings upon us. You have compelled us to be happy and grateful. It therefore gives me very great pleasure to second this motion.

THE CHAIRMAN: Mr. George L. Sehon, of the Kentucky Children's Home Society will speak to us.

MR. SEHON: In the name of the South it is my very great pleasure to second the motion on the adoption of the report of the Committee on Resolutions. I was asked to attempt to tell the people of Virginia how much the people of the South have enjoyed this Conference. I left this city in the arms of my mother in 1861, a refugee, and became a Kentuckian. The relationship between Kentucky and Virginia is possibly closer than that of any other two states. Kentucky owns Virginia as her mother, therefore I can talk plain to you. This is the best Conference we have ever had, and we think the Virginians are the best people we have ever met. Your hospitality, your kindness, your courtesy, your gentleness, and your contagious smile have all made us feel perfectly at home. I wish to say as a Southerner to Southerners that this Conference has done more to bring about a right understanding between the different parts of the country than any other meeting we have ever had. Hundreds of people have told me that they never thought that conditions in the South were as they are. Your monuments and memorials to Lee and Jackson and others are magnificent, but there are monuments that will be carried away in the hearts of these people and which will be more enduring than any of these in bronze and granite. You have worked nobly, establishing public institutions for your dependent, defective and delinquent classes. Our delegates were not prepared to see so much care and attention paid to the colored race. Some have told me that they know now that the problem of the colored race is safe in the hands of the South. The state of Virginia is in advance of all other states when it comes to the disposition of jail cases. In our state they languish in prison, a source of expense, and teaching others criminality, making the jail the worst place in theworld. Here they place them on the public roads and make them work. We can take that lesson home.

The South endorses every word that has been said in appreciation of your kindness, and wants to say something in addition. The South pledges her support to the new president, and assures him that it will do all in its power to make his convention the best yet. We in Kentucky propose to do more than we have ever done before. We feel the need of the Conference like this, and this is the first time that our governor has sent state officials to this Conference. On one or two occasions the state has been represented by one or two, but this year by twenty-three, and all are going home delighted. Let us catch this contagious smile and keep it until we make our next Conference even a greater success than this one has been at Richmond.

THE CHAIRMAN: Mr. Amos W. Butler, Secretary of the State Board of Charities of Indiana, will address us.

MR. BUTLER: Some one told me that I was to represent the West. I want, Mr. Chairman, to second the motion that has been made by the Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions; but while I may represent the West we think out our way that we are in the East.

Last year one of the faithful members of this Conference in the name of the City of Richmond and the Commonwealth of Virginia, extended an invitation to come to Richmond. It was accepted, and we are here. We have enjoyed your hospitality so much, we almost hate to go away. My home is in Indiana, yet once our state, and almost all the Northwest was all Virginia. We are all your children coming back to the capital at the old home state, although some of us never met your hospitable people on Virginia soil before.

Some of us have been so charmed with your entertainment and so delighted with your hospitality that we have taken you at your word, and we are coming back here very soon. It happens that I am officially connected with the American Prison association which will hold its next annual Conference in the City of Richmond beginning on the 14th of next November. Mr. Johnson will be here I know, and Mr. Glenn and Mr. Sehon and Mrs. Amigh. You will find that a large number of these persons have

been so delighted with your entertainment that they are coming back in November.

But, Mr. Chairman, I will not speak longer, because I could not express all I feel if I tried. We cannot all shake hands and say goodby, but just consider that your hand is shaken.

THE CHAIRMAN: If there are no further seconds to the motion, all in favor of the resolution which you have heard will signify it by the usual sign. (The vote was unanimous and the motion was carried.) On behalf of the Thirty-fifth Conference of Charities and Correction, I desire to express to Mr. R. S. Tuck, representing the local committee, our regrets on leaving Richmond and the pleasures we have received at your hands, as expressed in the resolution which you have heard read.

MR. TUCK: The inability of Mr. Lancaster to perform this duty gives me the only serious burden that has been placed upon my shoulders in connection with this Conference. I feel that you haven't gathered half of the good from this Conference that the state of Virginia and the City of Richmond have. Your coming here was at the psychological moment. Our people have learned more in the last few days about the institutions under our care than they have ever known before. We have just recently established in our state a State Board of Charities. They will go forward now with a guidance that they did not have before you came here. We hope that you all have had a pleasant and profitable time. I must admit that in all my dealings with conventions of various kinds, this is the most unique. I have never known ten or twelve different lines or departments of work to be brought together in one common brotherhood, all working together pleasantly and peacefully and profitably for the betterment and uplift of mankind. It seems to me that yours is the body that could establish an ideal that I have long had in my mind, a league known as the Brotherhood of Man. The churches cannot accomplish it, other organizations have not reached it. The men I allude to comprise from thirty-three to forty per cent. of our population. I have in mind a league that can reach the average business man who never goes to church. Your body could do this by interesting him in your work not only financially, but giving him something to do. Put him in charge of some destitute orphan, some widowed mother or some home in distress. This, it seems to me, is the way in which we can reach that man, and among his class are some of the noblest hearts that ever beat. I have made appeals to business men of the various classes; and I have never failed to get a liberal contribution. Let us have as our motto, "Man's Love to Man," instead of "Man's Inhumanity to Man." Never become discouraged. You are doing the grandest work on earth. The successful business man, though he may amass great wealth and give his millions, can never accomplish one-hundredth part of what the humblest worker in your ranks, though enjoying but a few of the world's goods, may accomplish.

Now, Mr. President, I don't want to give you up. But there are so many of you that perhaps your force would be wasted in this small city. Therefore, on the broad principles of charity, I am willing to give you up to go to your respective cities, and accomplish still greater things than you have in the past. On behalf of our local committee I turn the conference over to your incoming president, who has our very best wishes. We know he will accomplish great results. May you go home with renewed energy and zeal for activity in your respective lines of work. I hope the City of Buffalo will give you better entertainment and a better conference than we have been able to.

MR. CUSHING: When it was first my fortune to attend a meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, I came in contact with men and women who are prominent in the world. When the City of San Francisco was in that terrible turmoil which succeeded the earthquake

and while the embers were still red and the smoke still rising, I met one of those men on the street. He had laid aside his work to come to our assistance, and he commanded the admiration and friendship and love of all who met him. It is with especial pleasure that I present to this conference the man of whom I speak, your president for the ensuing year, whose many good qualities I so greatly admire, Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, general superintendent of the Chicago Bureau of Charities.

MR. BICKNELL: I have listened to the reading of the names in the report of the Committee on Resolutions, names of the great men who were presidents of this conference. I thought what a tremendous responsibility it is to undertake to follow in the footsteps of such men. I feel so inadequate to it.

You all know what a broadening effect attendance on the meetings of this conference has on every one of us. When I first attended this conference, the particular work I was engaged in at that time I regarded as the most important of any social work that was then going on. But at the conference meetings I found that everybody else had some special interest which they thought the most important; and they seemed to be doing things, and after a while it occurred to me that what they were doing was just as important as what I was doing. Later on comes the maturation of the attendant upon these conferences, year after year, with the certainty of the oneness of it all. It is all one, and we cannot get away from that conclusion. My work cannot be complete without your work and your work cannot be complete without my work. After we have been working along our respective lines, and become a little bit narrow, we get together in these conferences and broaden out by renewing our associations, and go back in the right sort of touch and with the proper perspective of what is going on in the world about us. This is what makes these meetings of such great value. The formal meetings are only half of the conference. You get the other half at the hotels and in the homes of friends where hospitality is extended, and in going about the streets, and in building up acquaintances with others who have like interests. We correspond with people all over the country, but after we have met them at the conference our correspondence takes on an entirely different tone, for then we can see a mental picture of the splendid person to whom we are writing, and we know how to write in order to get the right sort of a response. It is not so much the papers and the addresses which we hear at these conferences, fine as they are, that impart the uplift. It is this building up of great friendships, and the opportunities to see the enthusiasm of others and to get in touch with what they are doing. This is what brings us into that sort of relation which enables us to go back and do much better work than we ever did before, or ever could do without this social intercourse.

The president of any organization such as this is, after all, a mighty small potato in the hill; for without the support of you he can do nothing. I feel that I am just here to fill in. If you will come to Buffalo and help according to your ability, we will have a conference which will be a credit and a pleasure to us all; but I can't promise anything at Buffalo that will surpass what we have had here. We will just see if we can't pretty near come up to it.

THE CHAIRMAN: We are about to close the 35th Annual Conference of Charities and Correction. Some of the people who have been at this conference will never be in this city again. We are going to the four corners of the earth; to the piney hills of Maine, to the northern boundary of the Great Lakes and the plains, down to the Mexican Sea, where the blossoms are to be found all winter, and out on the western shore, where at this very minute the last slanting rays of the setting sun fall across the Golden Gate. We shall take with us pleasant memories of this conference. Now in saying the last farewell, can I do so better than by saying:

"Fare thee well, and if forever,
Still forever, fare thee well."

DR. FORSYTHE: I trust you will permit me a word, although I have no adequate words to express my feelings on this occasion. I am sorry for the man who has adequate expression, for thought is deeper than feeling. I have listened most attentively from first to last to these wonderful reports on charities, and these statistics and addresses. You have taught us a great deal in the way of practical things. I ask you as Christian men and women, as God's children in the great household of faith, lift up your hearts and pray that God will give to us great results, real results, true and lasting results, from this great convention, the like of which I have never seen.

After the benediction the 35th National Conference of Charities and Correction adjourned sine die.

REPORT OF THE TREASURER

Edward Boyle, Treasurer, in account with the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

RECEIPTS

Dr. 1907	
July 16, to cash from Ex-Treasurer	$ 2,116.24
July 17, to cash, Sec.	2,000 00
July 25, to cash, Sec.	683 75
Aug. 16, to cash, Sec.	170 89
Sept. 10, to cash, Sec.	78 54
Oct. 17, to cash, Sec.	97 25
Nov. 4, to cash, Sec.	162 85
Dec. 5, to cash, Sec.	99 49
Dec. 31, to cash, Sec.	230 63
1908	
Jan. 20, to cash, Sec.	344 57
Jan. 20, to sundry items	7 30
Jan. 25, to cash, Sec.	1,028 95
Jan. 25, to sundry items	3 00
Feb. 8, to cash, Sec.	1,077 07
Feb. 18, to cash, Sec.	633 30
Feb. 18, to sundry items	8 20
Feb. 28, to cash, Sec.	217 90
Feb. 28, to sundry items	2 50
Mar. 6, to cash, Sec.	210 04
Mar. 9, to sundry items	1 60
Mar. 28, to cash, Sec.	418 00
Mar. 28, so sundry items	3 00
Apr. 4, to sundry items	2 50
Apr. 8, to cash, Sec.	222 86
Apr. 16, to cash, Sec.	378 44
Apr. 28, to cash, Sec.	336 93
Apr. 28, to sundry items	7 00
May 1, to cash, Sec.	2 00
May 1, to interest received monthly, total for yr.	23 66
	$10,568 46
May 1, to balance on hand	$ 1,220 42

DISBURSEMENTS

Cr. 1907	By	
May 31,	voucher No. 58.	$ 717 79
Jun. 30,	voucher No. 59.	264 08
Jun. 30,	voucher No. 60.	226 31
July 31,	voucher No. 61.	748 58
Aug. 31,	voucher No. 62.	690 25
Sept. 30,	voucher No. 63	451 92
Oct. 31,	voucher No. 64.	436 78
Nov. 30,	voucher No. 65.	370 96
1908		
Jan. 1,	voucher No. 66.	968 35
Jan. 31,	voucher No. 67.	490 28
Feb. 29,	voucher No. 68.	489 76
Feb. 29,	voucher No. 69.	1,849 24
Mar. 31,	voucher No. 70.	812 67
Apr. 24,	voucher No. 71.	150 00
Apr. 27,	voucher No. 72.	681 07
May 1,	by balance	1,220 42
		$10,568 46

Richmond, Va., May 15, 1908.

Audited and found correct,

HASTINGS H. HART,
O. K. CUSHING,

Auditing Committee.

SECRETARY'S FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR CONFERENCE YEAR 1907-1908

RECEIPTS

1907				
June 1	To Treasurer's balance			$ 2,116 24
to	To contributions			1,502 60
1908	To sales of Proceedings			899 62
June 1	To sales of Bulletin			3 00
	To sales of Index			19 04
	To sales of Guide			39 40
	To sales of Reprints			120 26
	To sales of Badges			37 40
	To exchange on collection			19 64
	To interest on daily balance			23 66
	To sundry items			7 60
	To memberships (active):			
	Subs, of 1904	$ 2 50		
	Subs. of 1905	5 00		
	Subs. of 1906	60 00		
	Subs. of 1907	1,427 00		
	Subs. of 1908	2,345 50		
	Subs. of 1909	10 00		
	Total active		$ 3,850 00	
	To memberships (sustaining):			
	Patrons of 1907	$ 195 00		
	Patrons of 1908	1,735 00		
	Total sustaining		1,930 00	
	Total membership			5,780 00
				$10,568 46

DISBURSEMENTS.

1907				
May 1	Proceedings:			
to	By second edition of 1906	$ 289 92		
1908	Binding back numbers	156 94		
June 1	Expenses of donation	9 78		
				$ 456 64
	Proceedings of 1907:			
	Printing and binding	1,803 94		
	Reporting	200 00		
	Plates	74 25		
	Distributing	445 50		
				2,523 69
	By publishing and mailing Bulletin			645 22
	By publishing Guide and Index			221 43
	By publishing reprints			99 90
	By badges			132 50
	By sundry conference expense of 1907, programs, advertising, printing, speakers' expenses, etc			343 38
	By stationery and sundry printing			271 44
	By postage (not including postage on Bulletin)			414 63
	By office rent			180 00
	By sundry freight and express			42 07
	By telegraphing and telephone			52 59
	By office furniture			11 38

By insurance		15 50
By surety bonds of officers		22 50
By Secretary's traveling expenses		458 41
By President's expenses (1907)		47 26
By Press Committee's expenses (1907 and 1908, part)		299 87
By salary of Secretary	$2,333 30	
By salaries of clerks	765 75	
		3,099 05
By Exchange on collection		10 58
By Treasurer's balance		1,220 42
		$10,568 46

Respectfully submitted,

ALEXANDER JOHNSON,
General Secretary.

Audited and found correct,

HASTINGS H. HART,
O. K. CUSHING,
Auditing Committee.

The Organization of the Conference of 1908

President, Thomas M. Mulry, New York City; First Vice-President, Oscar K. Cushing, San Francisco, Calif,; Second Vice-President, Jacob H. Hollander, Baltimore, Md.; Third Vice-President, Franklin H. Nibecker, Glen Mills, Pa.; General Secretary, Alexander Johnson, Indianapolis, Ind.; Treasurer, Edward Boyle, Chicago, Ill.; Assistant Secretaries, W. H. McClain, St. Louis, Mo.; Arthur P. Kellogg, New York; Natl. G. Grasty, Baltimore, Md.; H. S. Braucher, Portland, Me.; S. P. Morris, Omaha, Neb;. Eugene T. Lies, Minneapolis, Minn.; Harold K. Estabrook, Philadelphia, Pa.

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Allegheny, Pa.; J. F. O'Brien, Portland, Me.; Miss Rebecca Raoul, Atlanta, Ga.; Z, J. Pequignot, Philadelphia, Pa.; W. Frank Persons, New York City; Miss M. E. Richmond, Philadelphia, Pa.; Miss Amelia Sears, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. Millie Trumbull, Portland, Ore.; Charles F. Weller, Washington, D. C.; Rev. Dr. William J. White, Brooklyn, N. Y.

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Membership List

Revised to November 1, 1908.

ALABAMA.

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Searcy, Dr. J. T., Supt. Insane Hospital, Tuscaloosa.
Tutwiler, Miss Julia S., Livingston.

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Chisnut, M. R., Supt. Ark. Reform School, Little Rock.
Reynolds, Prof. J. H., Fayetteville.

CALIFORNIA.

Associated Charities, Court House, Los Angeles.
Associated Charities, 1265 Franklin St., Oakland.
*Banning, B. R., 2434 Hillside Ave., Berkeley.
Brewer, Miss Anne W., 770 Summit Ave., Oakland.
Bridge, Dr. Norman, 217 So. Broadway, Los Angeles.
Brown, Julius A., 2317 W. 9th St., Los Angeles.
Burdette, Mrs. Clara B., Pasadena.
Clarke, James, 187 S. Marango Ave., Pasadena.
Conaty, Rt. Rev. Thos. J., Bishop of Los Angeles, Los Angeles.
Coolidge, Mrs. Dane, 3001 Dwight Way, Berkeley.
Dawson, Dr. Wm. J. G., Medical Supt. Home for F. M., Eldridge.
Desmond, C. C., 301 S. Spring St., Los Angeles.
Gilman, Emma Ross, 720 Anacapa St., Santa Barbara.
Gillett, Hon. Jas. N., Sacramento.
Greeley, J. P., Supt. Whittier State School, Whittier.
Hallidie, Mrs. A. S., 2635 Channing Way, Berkeley.
Lindley, Dr. Walter, 1414 S. Hope St., Los Angeles.
McLean, Rev. J. K., College Ave., Berkeley.
Moore, E. C., Supt. Pub. Schools, Los Angeles.
Peixotto, Dr. Jessica B., Univ. of Calif., Berkeley.
Randall, Wm. T., Supt. Preston School of Industry, Waterman.
Robinson, Mrs. C. J., McKinley, Ind., Home, Los Angeles.
Ruess, Christopher, 827 57th St., Oakland.
Sterling, Mrs. E. C., Crescent Ave., Redlands.
Symmes, Frank J., 2231 Piedmont Way, Berkeley.
Taylor, R. S., Yreka.
Tinning, W. S., Martinez.
Whitney, Miss C. A., Sec. Associated Charities, 808 Broadway, Oakland.

San Francisco.

Associated Charities, The.
Cushing, O. K., 37 Seventh Ave.
Davis, Horace, 133 Spear St.
Fitch, Miss Virginia, Fairmont Hotel.
Gates, W. A., Sec. Board of State Charities, the Merchants Exchange.
Levy, Meyer H., 436 O'Farrell St.
McCarity, Miss Theresa Earles, 1325 Green St.
Miles, Charles, Territ. Sec. Salvation Army, 1271 Mission St.
Putnam, Osgood, 401 California St.
Ramm, Rev. Chas. A., 1100 Franklin St.
Rosenthal, Lewis, 301 Calif. St.
Todd, Arthur J., 1635 Mason St.
Turner, George C., Baker and Grove Sts.
Wheelen, F. H., 224 Calif. St.

COLORADO.

Bruno, Frank J., Agent Assoc. Char., Colorado Springs.
Dennis, Joseph, J., Golden.
Library of Univ. of Colo., Boulder.
Lott, Winifred E., 218 E. Dale St., Colorado Springs.
McDonald, Mrs. W. H., 304 N. Main St., Pueblo.
Paddleford, Fred L., Supt. State Indus. Sch. for Boys, Golden.
Reed, Miss Mellie, Elbert.
Williams, Mrs. Harriet E., Sec. Board of County Visitors, Boulder.

Denver.

Bacon, Jay W., Juvenile Court.
Bates, C. H., Prob. Off. Juvenile Ave.
Casper, Mrs. Stanley M., 1241 Gaylord St.
Friedmann, Dr. W. S., 1060 Emerson St.
George, Mrs. S. Izetta, Secy. C. O. S., 1420 Champa St.
Gregory, Miss Ida L., 1032 14th St., Juv. Court Prob. Off.

*Sustaining members.

Hagar, Clarence E., State Capitol.
Lawney, Dr. Eleanor.
Lindsey, Judge Ben B.
McDonald, Hon. Jesse F., Capitol Bldg.
Malone, Rev. T. H., Mem. St. Bd. Charities.
Muller, Alfred, 115 Emerson St.
Pershing, J. H., 404 Equitable Bldg.
Woman's Club of Denver.

CONNECTICUT.

State Home for Dependent Children, 2309 So. Clarkson St.
Bridgman, H. H., Pres. St. Bd. of Char., Norfolk.
Buel, Dr. John L., Litchfield.
Corbin, Arthur F., 9 Washington St., Norwich.
Fairbank, Mrs. W. G., Middletown.
Fairbank, W. G., Middletown.
Fisher, Prof. Willard, Middletown.
Fuller, Edward A., Suffield.
Gay, Hon. Henry, Winsted.
Gillman, Miss Emily S., 380 Washington St., Norwich.
Glover, Mrs. Emily H., Fairfield.
Hallock, Dr. F. K., Cromwell.
*Hillard, Miss Mary R., St. Margaret's, Waterbury.
Holman, Justin B., Deep River.
Johnson, A. L., New Britain.
Johnson, L. S., New Britain.
*Kellogg, Chas. P., Sec. St. Board of Charities, Waterbury.
Knight, Dr. George H., Lakeville
Knight, Mrs. George H., Lakeville
Merritt, Charles H., Danbury.
*Mitchell, Mrs. Frank A., 208 W. Thames St., Norwich.
Morris, James P., 3 Hickory, Waterbury.
Noble, Dr. Henry S., Middletown.
*Platt, F. G., 32 Grove Hill, New Britain.
Ryan, Stetson K., 241 Court St., Middletown.
Shanley, Rev. Walter J., Danbury
Ward, Mrs. Mary L., Danbury.
Whittlesey, H. C., Middletown.
Woodruff, George M., Litchfield.

Hartford.

Bunce, Jonathan B., 61 Edwards St.
Down, Dr. Edwin A., 2 State St.
Green, David I., Supt. C. O. S., 133 Trumbull St.
Hall, Miss Mary, 98 Pratt St.
Huntington, Rev. J. T., 17 Clinton St.
Kane, Thos. F., 69 Washington St.
Merriam, Prof. Alex, R., 314 Collins St.
Thompson, Whitefield N., Hartford Retreat.

New Haven.

Bacon, Miss Rebekah G., 307 Crown St.
Brewer, Prof. Wm. H., 418 Orange St.
Brown, Robert, Observatory Place.
Corcoran, Rev. John F., St. Francis Orphan Asylum.
*Farnam, Prof. Henry W., 43 Hillhouse Ave.
Fisher, Prof. Irving, 460 Prospect St.
Matthewson, Albert McC., 865 Chapel St.
Newton, Henry G., 818 Chapel St.
Porter, Joseph, 215 Whitney Ave.
Preston, Sherwood O., 200 Orange St.
Sheldon, Charles A.
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Welch, Pierce N.

*Sustaining members.

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*Bancroft, Wm. P., Wilmington.
Blackburn, B. Frank, Supt. New Castle Co. Hospital, Farnhurst.
Henry, Dr. C., Newark.
Jackson, Mrs. Emma, 2400 Market St., Wilmington.
Jackson, Henry M., 2400 Market St., Wilmington.
Kellogg, Rev. H. W., Grace M. E. Church, Wilmington.
Pennewill, Mrs. J. W., 706 West St., Wilmington.
Thompson, Mary M. Dillon, 1701 Penn. Ave., Wilmington.
Warner, Mrs. A. D., 1202 Delaware Ave., Wilmington.
Weaver, Jennie M., W. End Reading Room, Wilmington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Associated Charities, 811 G. St., N. W.
*Baldwin, Wm. H., 1415 W. 21st St.
Barnum, Miss Charlotte C., Coast Survey.
Bicknell, Ernest P., American Red Cross.
Boone, Rev. Charles E., 1 14th St. S. E.
Bushee, Mrs. Edna Keene, 943 Longfellow St.
Cook, Miss Susan B., 607 Howard Ave., N. W.
Crosby, Frances S., 925 N. St., N. W.
Darnall, O. E. Sup. Reform School, Bladensburg Pike.
DeLacy, Hon. William H., Judge Juvenile Court.
Department of Commerce and Labor, 15th and New York Ave.
Douglass, John W., Agt. Bd. of Ch. Guardians, 1705 35th St.
Downey, W. F., 1013 17th St., N. W.
Edson, John Joy, 9th and F Sts.
Foster, Miss Estelle, 2512 17th St., N. W.
Foster, Mrs. J. Ellen, The Portner.
Green, Miss Ida A., 811 G. St., N. W.
Jackson, Rev. Sheldon, D. D., U. S. Bur. of Education.
Janney, B. T., 1671 31st St.
Jones, J. Hubert, 1637 Rosedale St.
Kerby, Rev. Wm. J., Prof. of Sociology, Catholic University.
*Kibbey, Miss Bessie J., 2025 Mass. Ave.
MacFarland, Henry B. F., 1816 F St., N. W.
Moore, Ella, 1680 31st St.
Morgan, Dr. James Dudley, 919 15th St.

Neighborhood House, The, 456 N. St. S. W.
Neill, Charles P., Catholic University.
Prescott, Annie M., 1111 E. Capitol St.
Rafter, Mrs. Giles Scott, 3105 16th St.
Reynolds, James B., The Highlands.
Rudolph, Cuno H., 1332 New York Ave.
Rugg, Mrs. Mary C., 1737 Willard St. N. W.
Skinner, C. W., Supt. Indus. Home Sch., 2575 Wis. Ave.
Truesdell, Col. George, Wyatt Bldg.
Van Schaik, John, Jr., 1314 Vermont Ave.
Veditz, C. W. A., Geo. Washington University.
West, Ella K., 3717 Brightwood Ave.
West, James E., 1343 Clifton St.
Wilson, G. S., Sec. Board of Charities, District Bldg.
Woodward, S. W., 2015 Wyoming Ave.
Zinkhan, Louis F., Supt. Washington Asylum.

FLORIDA.

Bateman, Rev. Robert W., Jacksonville.
Seaton, Mrs. Cora Hawley, Supt. Ch. Home Soc. of Fla., Jacksonville.
Weed, Rt. Rev. E. G., D. D. Jacksonville.
Woman's Club of Jacksonville.

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EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE—The ex-presidents as follows: * Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Ohio (*1879*); F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts (*1880*); Fred H. Wines, Illinois; (*1881*); William P. Letchworth, New York (*1884*); Rt. Rev. G. D. Gillespie, Michigan (*1889*); Hastings H. Hart, Illinois (*1893*); Robert Treat Paine, Massachusetts (*1895*); Alexander Johnson, Indiana (*1897*); William R. Stewart, New York (*1898*); Charles R. Henderson, Illinois (*1899*); Charles E. Faulkner, Minnesota (*1900*); John M. Glenn, Maryland (*1901*); Timothy Nicholson, Indiana (*1902*); Robert W. de Forest, New York (*1903*); Jeffrey R. Brackett, Massachusetts (*1904*); Rev. Samuel G. Smith, D. D., Minnesota (*1905*); Edward T. Devine, New York (*1906*); Amos W. Butler, Indiana (*1907*); Thomas M. Mulry, New York (*1908*); the President; the First Vice-President; George B. Davis, Virginia; James F. Jackson, Ohio; J. J. Kelso, Ontario; Homer Folks, New York; Julian W. Mack, Illinois; Frank L. McVey, Minnesota; George B. Robinson, New York; F. H. Nibecker, Pennsylvania; George S. Wilson, District of Columbia.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

REPORTS FROM STATES—Alexander Johnson, General Secretary, Chairman ex officio; Miss Daisy Denson, Raleigh, N. C.; Marcus C. Fagg, Evansville, Ind.; Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury, Conn.; C. E. Prevey, Lincoln, Neb.

STATE SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION—Dr. Frank A. Fetter, Chairman, Ithaca, N. Y.; Miss Kate Barnard, Commissioner of Charities, Guthrie, Okla.; Milton Board, Frankfort, Ky.; Joseph P. Byers, Randall's Island, N. Y.; John Joy Edson, Ninth and F streets N. W., Washington; Sherman G. Elliott, Topeka, Kan.; Rev. Francis H. Gavisk, 126 West Georgia street, Indianapolis; Dr. Charles Gorst, Mendota, Wis.; Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch, 3612 Grand Boulevard, Chicago; Dr. Paulus A. Irving, 301 West Grace street, Richmond; James F. Jackson, 501 St. Clair avenue N. E., Cleveland; J. W. Jones, Superintendent Deaf and Dumb Institution, Columbus; Dennis McCarthy, 818 James street, Syracuse, N. Y.; Rev. D. J. McMahon, D. D., 239 East Twenty-first street, New York; Mrs. C. E. Minor, Richmond, Va.; D. C. Potter, 280 Broadway, New York; Rev. Charles A. Ramm, 1100 Franklin street, San Francisco; P. M. Ringdall, 1808 Dayton avenue, St. Paul; George S. Robinson, State House, Des Moines, Ia.; Joseph F. Scott, Elmira, N. Y.; Mrs. Lucy M. Sickels, Superintendent State Home for Girls, Adrian, Mich.; Dr. R. Bruce Smith, Toronto, Ontario; Rev. Samuel G. Smith, 125 College avenue, St. Paul; Mrs. Lillian C. Streeter, 234 North Main street, Concord, N. H.; Levi Turner, Portland, Me.; Mrs. E. E. Williamson, Elizabeth, N. J.

*The date following the name of each ex-president is that of his year of office.

FAMILIES AND NEIGHBORHOODS—Robert A. Woods, Chairman, South End House, Boston; Miss Fanny Battle, Nashville, Tenn.; Dr. Boris D. Bogen, 965 Elleron Ave., Cincinnati; Mrs. Park Bolling, Richmond, Va.; Edmond J. Butler, 67 West 131st street, New York; Gilbert Carlson, Dawson, Minn.; Mrs. John R. Commons, Madison, Wis.; Miss Rossa B. Cooley, Frogmore, St. Helena Island, S. C.; Richard Devine, 1539 Chestnut street, Philadelphia; Frank Flanner, 320 North Illinois street, Indianapolis; Charles F. R. Foss, Boston; Mrs. George F. French, 99 High street, Portland, Me.; Mrs. Dr. Gray, Houston, Tex.; Miss A. Gulley, 108 North Seventh street, Richmond, Va.; Rev. J. B. Hannigan, 1100 Franklin street, San Francisco; Thomas W. Hynes, 1332 Pacific street, New York; Miss Frances Ingram, 530 First street, Louisville, Ky.; Eugene T. Lies, City and County building, Minneapolis; Sherman C. Kingsley, 51 LaSalle street, Chicago; F. H. McLean, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York; Miss Eleanor McMain, 1202 Annunciation street, New Orleans; J. W. Magruder, 101 West Saratoga street, Baltimore; Rev. Peter J. O'Callahan, St. Mary's Roman Catholic Church, Chicago; George R. Reagan, 53 State street, Boston; Miss Mary E. Richmond, Eleventh and Walnut streets, Philadelphia; Thomas J. Riley, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.; Cornelius D. Scully, Howe street, Pittsburg; Graham Taylor, 180 Grand avenue, Chicago; Miss Lillian D. Wald, Nurses' Settlement, Henry street, New York; Roy Smith Wallace, 282 Babcock street, Buffalo, N. Y.; J. B. Williams, 124 Essex avenue, Orange, N. J.

HEALTH AND SANITATION—Dr. John S. Fulton, Chairman, 2211 St. Paul street, Baltimore; H. E. Barnard, State Food and Drug Commissioner, Indianapolis; Dr. H. M. Bracken, Minneapolis; F. J. Bruno, Colorado Springs, Colo.; Dr. Richard C. Cabot, 190 Marlboro street, Boston; Dr. Charles V. Chapin, City Hall, Providence, R. I.; Mrs. Dane Coolidge, 3001 Dwightway, Berkeley, Cal.; Dr. J. F. Edwards, 517 St. Clair street, Pittsburg; Miss Alice S. Griffith, 2608 Webster street, San Francisco; Dr. Charles Hatfield, 2008 Walnut street, Philadelphia; Dr. Charles A. Hoggetts, Chief Health Officer, Toronto, Ontario; John R. Howard, Jr., 404 Seneca street, Buffalo; Miss Matilda L. Johnson, 501 St. Clair avenue, Cleveland; Miss Nannie J. Miner, 108 North Seventh street, Richmond, Va.; Dr. Prince Morrow, 66 West Fortieth street, New York; Miss Adelaide Nutting, 417 West 118th street, New York; Dr. C. O. Probst, Columbus, O.; Thomas G. Rapier, Picayune Office, New Orleans; William Jay Schieffelein, 5 E. 66th street, New York; Mrs. P. J. Toomey, 4035 West Morgan street, St. Louis; H. W. Wiley, Department of Agriculture, Washington; Dr. William C. Woodward, District building, Washington.

DEFECTIVES—Dr. Martin W. Barr, Chairman, Elwyn, Pa.; S. A. Armstrong, Parliament building, Toronto; B. B. Bowles, Staunton, Va.; A. E. Carroll, Indiana School for Feeble-Minded Youth, Fort Wayne, Ind.; Dr. J. C. Carson, Syracuse Institution for Feeble-Minded, Syracuse, N. Y.; Dr. Henry C. Eyman, Massillon, O.; Miss Mary Garrett, Belmont and Monument Aves., Philadelphia; Dr. F. W. Hatch, Sacramento, Cal.; B. B. Huntoon, Superintendent Kentucky Institution for Blind, Louisville; Dr. George H. Knight, Lakeville, Conn.; Dr. F. Park Lewis, 454 Franklin street, Buffalo; D. P. MacMillen, 808-143 Dearborn street, Chicago; Dr. William Mabon, Ward's Island, New York; Dr. George Mogridge, Glenwood, Ia.; Miss Mary Perry, 241 St. Botolph street, Boston; Miss Bessie Scholfield, 190 Knight street, Providence; Dr. W. P. Spratling, Craig Colony for Epileptics, Sonyea, N. Y.; James H. Van Sickle, Superintendent Public Schools, Baltimore; Miss Lucy Wright, Boston.

STATISTICS—John Koren, Chairman, 64 Pemberton square, Boston; Prof. F. W. Blackmar, University of Kansas, Lawrence; Miss Lilian Brandt, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York; Miss Kate H. Claghorn, 81 Columbia Heights, Brooklyn; Lee K. Frankel, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York; W. A. Gates, Secretary Board of State Charities,

San Francisco; Miss Laura Greely, 52 State House, Indianapolis; Frederick L. Hoffman, Prudential Life Insurance Co., Newark, N. J.; H. H. Shirer, State Capitol, Columbus, O.; Prof. David S. Snedden, Teachers' College, 120th street, New York; Rev. William J. White, D. D., 98 Richards street, Brooklyn.

CHILDREN—J. B. Montgomery, Chairman, Coldwater, Mich; C. B. Adams, Boys' Industrial School, Lancaster, O.; Mrs. Samuel A. Ammon, Hotel Kenmawr, Pittsburg; R. N. Baldwin, City Hall, St. Louis; Rev. Brother Barnabas, 417 Broome street, New York; Miss Martha Berry, The Berry School, Rome, Ga.; Charles W. Birtwell, 43 Charity building, Boston; Miss Mary Carmichael, 52 State House, Indianapolis; Mrs. John M. Cushing, 2222 Chapel street, Berkeley, Cal.; Edgar T. Davies, 188 Madison street, Chicago; William H. DeLacy, Judge Juvenile Court, Washington; Mrs. W. G. Fairbank, Middletown, Conn.; James E. Fee, State House, Boston; Miss Estelle Foster, 2512 Seventeenth street N. W., Washington; Charles D. Hilles, Dobb's Ferry, N. Y.; J. C. Kalleen, State Home for Boys, Jamesburg, N. J.; J. J. Kelso, Parliament building, Toronto; Max Landsberg, 420 East Main street, Rochester, N. Y.; Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York; Rev. J. T. Mastin, Station A, Richmond, Va.; Rev. Stephen P. Morris, 828 Filmore street, Topeka, Kan.; Mrs. B. B. Munford, R. F. D. No. 4, Richmond, Va.; Simon A. Nash, 13 Erie County Bank building, Buffalo; Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly, 39 Eliot street, Jamaica Plains, Mass.; Arthur Peters, Louisville; Rev. John R. Power, Central Bureau of Charity, St. Paul; E. D. Solenberger, 1506 Arch street, Philadelphia; Miss Mary Vaux, 1715 Arch street, Philadelphia.

LAW-BREAKERS—Rt. Rev. Samuel Fallows, D. D., Chairman, Chicago; Charles Almy, Cambridge, Mass.; M. M. Barnard, Assistant Superintendent Reformatory, Jeffersonville, Ind.; Roger Phelps Clark, Binghamton, N. Y.; C. V. Collins, Albany, N. Y.; John J. Cruchfield, City Hall, Richmond, Va.; Dr. Katherine B. Davis, State Reformatory for Women, Bedford, N. Y.; James L. Dawson, Meremer and Broadway, St. Louis; C. A. DeCourcey, Lawrence, Mass.; M. B. Feagin, Birmingham, Ala.; Wallace Gillpatrick, 129 Chrystie street, New York; J. T. Gilmour, Central Prison, Toronto; Emanuel Levine, Hiram House, Cleveland; Charles McKenna, 221 Pearl street, New York; Rev. J. K. McLean, 2223 Atherton street, Berkeley, Calif.; Mrs. E. J. O'Sullivan, Mercer Reformatory, Toronto; F. G. Pettigrove, State House, Boston; Frank L. Randall, St. Cloud, Minn.; E. R. Rogers, Ottawa, Canada.

IMMIGRANTS—Miss Jane Addams, Chairman, Hull House, Chicago; Robert W. Bingham, Paul Jones building, Louisville; Dr. David Blaustein, 184 Eldridge street, New York; Joseph W. Brooks, 1001 Kayser building, Baltimore; Dr. P. H. Bryce, Ottawa, Ontario; Miss Jean Gordon, 1800 Prytania street, New Orleans; John H. Holliday, 1121 North Meridian street, Indianapolis; Daniel McCann, 1123 Oak avenue, Evanston; Mrs. R. L. McLaurin, Vicksburg, Miss.; Frank L. McVey, 822 Seventh street S. E., Minneapolis; Judge Julian W. Mack, Court House, Chicago; Miss Sarah W. Moore, 129 Broad street, New York; Dr. Jessica Peixotto, Berkeley, Calif.; Miss Frances Perkins, 19 East Twenty-sixth street, New York; Roderick Potter, 656 Ellicott square, Buffalo; James F. Reilly, Harrisburg, Pa.; Mrs. Hugo Rosenberg, Hotel Schenley, Pittsburg, Pa.; Gino C. Speranza, 40 Pine street, New York; Rev. B. M. Spurr, Moundsville, W. Va.; Edward A. Steiner, Grinnell, Ia.; Oscar Strauss, Washington, D. C.; Thomas N. Strong, President City Board of Charities, Portland, Ore.; Capt. A. Thompson, Morecombe, England; Robert Watchorn, Commissioner of Immigration, Ellis Island, New York.

PRESS AND PUBLICITY—H. Wirt Steele, Chairman, 101 Saratoga street, Baltimore; Erastus Brainard, Post-Intelligence, Seattle, Wash.; Hilton U. Brown, Indianapolis News, Indianapolis; John Stewart Bryan, Richmond, Va.; Charles H. Grasty, Boston; Arthur P. Kellogg, 105 East

Twenty-second street, New York; Porter R. Lee, 19 West Tupper street, Buffalo; J. C. Logan, 705 Gould building, Atlanta; A. W. McDougall, 10 Academy street, Newark, N. J.; Tom C. Noyes, Star building, Washington, D. C.; Miss Louise Speed, 221 East Walnut street, Louisville Ky.; Charles F. Weller, Fulton building, Pittsburg.

STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES—Alabama, Miss Julia S. Tutwiler, Livingston; Alaska, W. G. Beattie, Sitka; Arkansas, Prof. J. H. Reynolds, Fayetteville; California, W. A. Gates, Berkeley; Colorado, Clarence Hagar, State Capitol, Denver; Connecticut, Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury; Delaware, Mrs. Emalea P. Warner, Kentmere Place, Wilmington; District of Columbia, Geo. S. Wilson, District building, Washington; Florida, Mrs. Cora Hawley Seaton, Astor building, Jacksonville; Georgia, Dr. T. D. Longino, 61 Parks street, Atlanta; Idaho, J. T. Humphries, St. Anthony; Illinois, Wm. C. Graves, State Board of Charities, Springfield; Indiana, Miss Laura Greely, 52 State House, Indianapolis; Iowa, F. S. Treat, State House, Des Moines; Kansas, F. W. Knapp, Secretary of Board of Control, Topeka; Kentucky, Edward Grauman, 625 Seventh street, Louisvillle; Louisiana, Michel Heymann, 5342 St. Charles avenue, Now Orleans; Maine, E. P. Wentworth, 264 Westbrook St., Portland; Maryland, Nathaniel G. Grasty, Court House, Baltimore; Massachusetts, Joseph Lee, 101 Tremont street, Boston; Michigan, John P. Sanderson, Lansing; Minnesota, A. W. Gutridge, 609 Baltimore building, St. Paul; Missouri, Dr. Charles A. Ellwood, Columbia; Montana, D. B. Price, Stevensville; Nebraska, A. W. Clarke, Omaha; New Hampshire, Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter, 234 Main street, Concord; New Jersey, Mrs. Abraham Van Winkle, Newark; New York, Robert W. Hill, The Capitol, Albany; North Carolina, Miss Daisy Denson, The Capitol, Raleigh; North Dakota, Frank D. Hall, 804 Fourth street South, Fargo; Ohio, H. H. Shirer, Board of State Charities, Columbus; Oklahoma, Miss Kate Barnard, Oklahoma City; Oregon, W. R. Walpole, 305 Jefferson street, Portland; Pennsylvania, Carl Kelsey, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; Rhode Island, James E. Reed, Providence; South Carolina, A. T. Jamison, Greenwood; South Dakota, W. E. Tipton, Mitchell; Tennessee, Charles C. Trabue, 17 Noel block, Nashville; Texas, John L. Green, City Hall, Fort Worth; Utah, Mrs. Ida S. Dusenberry, Provo; Vermont, Rev. J. Edward Wright, 19 Baldwin street, Montpelier; Virginia, Rev. T. J. Mastin, State Capitol, Richmond; Wisconsin, M. J. Tappins, Madison; New Brunswick, Rev. Hunter Boyd, Waweig; Ontario, Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh, Toronto; Quebec, Richard H. Lane, C. O. S., 150 Bleury street, Montreal; Cuba, Dr. Juan B. Valdes, Havana. Others to be appointed by the Executive Committee.

State Boards and Commissions

ARIZONA. Board of Control. Capitol, Phoenix. Established 1894. Gov. Jos. Kibbey, President, Phoenix ; James J. Riggs, Secretary, Phoenix ; Auditor of State, Sims Ely, ex-officio, Phoenix.

CALIFORNIA. State Board of Charities and Corrections. 1025 The Merchant's Exchange, San Francisco. Established 1903. James N. Gillett, Governor, Sacramento; Charles A. Ramm, D. D., San Francisco; E. C. Moore, M. D., Los Angeles; Louis Rosenthal, San Francisco; R. S. Taylor, Yreka; W. S. Tinning, Martinez; J. McLean D. D., President Berkeley; W. A. Gates, Secretary; Anita Eldridge, Clerk.

COLORADO. State Board of Charities and Corrections. Capitol, Denver. Established 1891. Gov. Henry A. Buchtel, ex-officio, Denver; Dr. D. H. Dougan, Denver; Rev. Thomas H. Malone, Denver; Judge William Thomas, Breckenridge; Mrs. James Williams, Denver; Rev. Dr. Wm. S. Friedman, President, Denver; Mrs. Stanley M. Caspar, Vice-President, Denver; Clarence E. Hagar, Secretary, Denver.

CONNECTICUT. State Board of Charities. Capitol, Hartford. Established 1873. Edwin A. Down, M. D., Hartford; Miss Rebekah G. Bacon, New Haven; Mrs. Frank A. Mitchell, Norwich; J. B. Holman, Saybrook; Thomas F. Kane, President, Hartford; Charles P. Kellogg, Secretary, Waterbury.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. Board of Charities. 464 Louisiana Ave. Established 1900. Myer Cohen, Washington; George M. Lightfoot, Washington; George M. Kober, Washington; John Joy Edson, President, Washington, George E. Hamilton, Washington; George S. Wilson, Secretary, Washington.

GEORGIA. The Prison Commission of Georgia. Atlanta. Established 1897. Clement A. Evans, Atlanta; Thomas Easton, McRae; Joseph S. Turner, Chairman, Eatonton; Jacob C. Moore, Warden, Rome; Goodloe Yancey, Secretary, Atlanta.

ILLINOIS. The Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities. State House, Springfield. Established 1869. Mrs. Clara P. Bourland, Peoria; Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, Chicago; Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Rockford; Dr. John T. McAnally, Carbondale; Dr. Frank Billings, President, Chicago; William C. Graves, Executive Secretary, Springfield; Harry S. Moore, Assistant Secretary, Springfield.

INDIANA. Board of State Charities. State House, Indianapolis. Established 1889. Demarchus C. Brown, Indianapolis; W. H. Eichhorn, Bluffton; Mrs. Carrie Goodwin Rexford, Indianapolis; Dr. Mary A. Spink, Indianapolis; Rev. Francis H. Gavisk, Indianapolis; John H. Holliday, Indianapolis; Gov. J. Frank Hanly, ex-officio, President, Indianapolis; Amos W. Butler, Secretary, Indianapolis.

IOWA. Board of Control of State Institutions. Capitol, Des Moines. Established 1898. G. S. Robinson, Sioux City; J. T. Hamilton, Des Moines; John Cownie, Chairman, South Amana; F. S. Treat, Secretary, Des Moines.

KANSAS. Board of Control of State Institutions. Topeka, Estab-

lished 1905. Harry C. Bowman, Newton; Edgar B. Schermerhorn, Chairman, Galena; Sherman G. Elliott, Treasurer, Lawrence; F. W. Knapp, Secretary, Topeka.

LOUISIANA. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS. New Orleans. Established 1904. T. P. Thompson, New Orleans; E. B. Herndon, Shreveport; R. McG. Carruty, M. D., New Roads; Gov. Newton C. Blanchard, ex-officio, President, Baton Rouge; Michel Heymann, Vice President, New Orleans; P. M. Westfeldt, Secretary, New Orleans.

MARYLAND. BOARD OF STATE AID AND CHARITIES. Baltimore. Established 1900. B. A. Betts; Dr. St. Clair Spruill; Dr. Jacob H. Hollander, James E. Ingram; Wm. J. McCrea, Joseph B. Harrington; Thomas A. Smith; Lloyd Wilkinson, Secretary, Baltimore.

MARYLAND. THE LUNACY COMMISSION. Baltimore. Established 1886. Stewart Paton, M. D. Baltimore; I. E. Atkinson, M. D., Baltimore; Charles W. Wainwright, M. D., Princess Anne; the Attorney-General, ex-officio, Thomas S. Latimer, M. D., President; George J. Preston, M. D., Secretary.

MASSACHUSETTS. STATE BOARD OF CHARITY. State House, Boston. Established 1879. Law amended 1886 and 1898. Leontine Lincoln, Chairman, Fall River; Laban Pratt, Vice-Chairman, Boston; Miss Frances Greely Curtis, Boston; Charles R. Johnson, Worcester; Charles H. Adams, Melrose; David F. Tilley, Boston; Abraham C. Ratshesky, Boston; Jeffrey R. Brackett, Boston; Thomas Downey, Boston; Joshua F. Lewis, M. D., Superintendent of State Adult Poor, Boston; James E. Fee, Superintendent of State Minor Wards, Boston;; John D. Wells, Clerk of the Board, Boston.

MASSACHUSETTS. STATE BOARD OF INSANITY. State House, Boston. Established 1898. George F. Jelly, Chairman, Boston; Michael J. O'Meara, M. D., Worcester, Henry P. Field, Northampton; William F. Whittemore, Boston; Herbert B. Howard, M. D., Boston; Owen Copp, M. D., Secretary, Boston.

MASSACHUSETTS. THE BOARD OF PRISON COMMISSIONERS. Boston Established 1898. Frederick C. Pettigrove, Chairman, Boston; Mrs. Margaret P. Russell, Boston; Henry Parkman, Boston; Arthur H. Wellman Malden; Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly, Boston; J. Warren Bailey, Secretary, Boston.

MICHIGAN. BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES. Lansing. Established 1871. Fred M. Warner, Governor, ex-officio, Lansing; Henry P. Mowry, M. D., Chairman, Bronson; Charles Lewis, Jackson; Dayton Parker, M. D., Detroit; George Clapperton, Grand Rapids; John P. Sanderson, Secretary, Lansing.

MINNESOTA. BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS. St. Paul. Established 1901. L. A. Rosing, Cannon Falls; P. M. Ringdal, Crookston; S. W. Leavett, Chairman, Litchfield; J. D. Mills, Secretary, St. Paul; M. C. Cutter, Purchasing Agent, St. Paul.

MISSOURI. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS. Jefferson City. Established 1897. Mrs. Gennie L. Rudd, Jefferson City; R. M. Abercrombie, St. Joseph; Rev. James N. Crutcher, Higginsville; James R. Moorehead, Lexington; David W. Reese, West Plains; Gov. Joseph W. Folk, President, Jefferson City; Miss Mary E. Perry, Vice-President; St. Louis; Frank Bowman, Secretary, Jefferson City.

NEBRASKA. BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS. Lincoln. Estab-

lished 1877. W. T. Thompson, Lincoln; L. J. Brian, Lincoln; Henry M. Eaton, President, Lincoln; George C. Junkin, Secretary, Lincoln.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. State Board of Charities and Correction. Established 1895. James F. Brennan, Peterboro; Mrs. Kate Howard Brown, Whitefield; Oliver J. M. Gilman, Alton; Sherman E. Burroughs, Manchester; Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter, Chairman, Concord; William J. Ahern, Secretary, Concord.

NEW JERSEY. State Board of Children's Guardians. Jersey City. Established 1899. Rev. J. R. Atkinson, Elizabeth; Joseph McCrystal, Patterson; Frederick G. Burnham, Morristown; Katherine E. Abbey, Mount Holly; Hugh F. Fox, President, Plainfield; Anthony T. Williams, Secretary, Mrs. E. E. Williamson, Treasurer, Elizabeth.

NEW JERSEY. State Commissioner of Charities and Correction. George B. Wight, Trenton.

NEW YORK. State Board of Charities. Albany. Established 1867. Law amended 1896. Annie G. DePeyster, New York; Thomas M. Mulry, New York; Augustus Floyd, Mastic; Joseph C. Baldwin, Jr., Mt. Kisco; Simon W. Rosendale, Albany; Richard L. Hand; Dennis McCarthy, Syracuse; Ralph W. Thomas, Hamilton; Horace McGuire, Rochester; William H. Gratwick, Buffalo; Wm. R. Stewart, President, New York; Stephen Smith, M. D., Vice President, New York; Robert W. Hill, Secretary, Albany; Richard W. Wallace, Superintendent of Inspection, Albany.

NEW YORK, State Commission of Lunacy. Albany. Established 1889. Sheldon T. Viele, Buffalo; William L. Parkhurst, Canandaigua; Albert Warren Ferris, President, New York; T. E. McCarr, Secretary, Albany; Wm. L. Russell, M. D., Medical Inspector, Poughkeepsie; George D. Sanford, Auditor, Albany.

NEW YORK. State Commission of Prisons. Albany. Established 1895. Law amended 1901. Francis C. Huntington, New York; Roger P. Clark, Binghamptom; Sarah L. Davenport, Bath; Edgar A. Newell, Ogdensburg; Henry Solomon, New York; Charles F. Howard, M. D., President, Buffalo; Thomas W. Hynes, Vice-President, Brooklyn; George McLaughlin, Secretary, Albany.

NORTH CAROLINA. Board of Public Charities. Raleigh. Established 1869, reorganized 1889. Carey J. Hunter, Raleigh; A. C. McAlister, Asheboro; Joseph G. Brown, Raleigh; Henry C. Dockery, Rockingham; William A. Blair, Chairman, Winston-Salem; Miss Daisy Denson, Secretary, Raleigh.

OHIO. Board of State Charities. Columbus. Established 1867. Law amended 1906. Gen. Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Mansfield; Rutherford H. Platt, Columbus; Jesse N. Orem, Wilmington; Rufus C. Burton, Zanesville; Joseph S. Neave, Cincinnati; Gov. Andrew L. Harris, ex-officio, President; Columbus; H. H. Shirer, Secretary, Columbus.

PENNSYLVANIA. Board of Public Charities. Philadelphia. Established 1869. George W. Ryon, Shamokin; Isaac Johnson, Media; Patrick C. Boyle, Oil City; Ralph Blum, Philadelphia; Cyrus B. King, Allegheny; William T. Bell, Mt. Union; Samuel E. Gill, Pittsburg; Howard B. French, Philadelphia; Edward K. Rowland, Philadelphia; Francis J. Torrance, President, Allegheny; Bromley Wharton, Secretary, Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND. Board of State Charities and Corrections. Providence. Established 1869. Walter A. Read, Providence; Philippe Boucher, Woonsocket; Robert F. Rodman, Providence; John J. Watson, Jr., James-

town; George R. Lawton, Tiverton; Harry H. Shepard, Briston; Horace F. Horton, Providence ; S. Willard Thayer, Pawtucket; James F. McCusker, Chairman, Pontiac; James R. Read, Secretary, Providence.

SOUTH DAKOTA. State Board of Charities and Corrections. Mitchell. Established 1890. W. E. Tipton, Mitchell; D. C. Thomas, Watertown; W. M. Powers, Yankton; W. H. King, Secretary, Parker.

TENNESSEE. Board of State Charities. Nashville. Established 1895. W. R. Cole, Nashville; Rabbi I. Lewinthal, Nashville; Father John K. Larkin, Memphis; James Maynard, Knoxville; Rev. John W. Bachman, President, Chattanooga; Rev. James A. Orman, Secretary, Nashville.

VIRGINIA. State Board of Charities. Richmond. Established 1908. Dr. Paulus A. Irving, Richmond; Hon. J. Alston Cabell, Richmond; Dr. George H. Denny, Lexington; Rev. S. C. Hatcher, Farmville; Hon. L. P. Stearnes, Newport News; Secretary, Rev. J. T. Mastin, Richmond.

WASHINGTON. State Board of Control. Olympia. Established 1901. J. H. Davis; Matt L. Piles; H. T. Jones, Chairman; C. C. Aspinwall, Secretary, Olympia.

WISCONSIN. State Board of Control. Madison. Established 1891. Dr. Almah J. Frisby, Milwaukee; Elmer Grimmer, Marinette; H. Grotophorst, Baraboo; Allan D. Conover, President, Madison; L. B. Dresser, Vice President, St. Croix Falls; M. J. Tappins, Secretary, Madison.

WYOMING. State Board of Charities and Reform. Cheyenne. Wm. R. Schnitzer; LeRoy Grant; Edward Gillette; Bryant B. Brooks; President; A. D. Cook, Secretary; F. B. Sheldon, Clerk.

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INDEX OF SUBJECTS

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THIS INDEX

Names of states, etc., the usual P. O. abbreviations, as N. Y., Ala., U. S.

A. C.	Associated charities.	Def.	Defective,-s,-ness.	N.	North,-ern.
A. I. C. P.	Association for Improving Condition of Poor.	Del.	Delinquent,-cy.	Nat.	National.
		Dep.	Dependent,-cy.	No.	Number,-s.
		Dept.	Department.		
Adm.	Administra ion, tive.	Des.	Destitute,-s.	O. D. R.	Outdoor relief.
Adv.	Advanced,-ing.	Dev.	Development,-s.	Off,	Officer,-s.
Agst.	Against.	Dr.	Doctor.	Org.	Organized -ation,-s.
Amd.	Amend,-ed, ment,-s.			Orp.	Orphan,-s.
Appn.	Appropriation,-s.	E.	East,-ern.		
Appt.	Appointment,-s,-ed.	Econ.	Economic,-s,-al.	Pen.	Penitentiary.
Assd.	Associated.	Emp.	Employed,-ment.	Phys.	Physical.
Assn.	Association.	Engd.	England,-ish.	Plg.	Placing.
Asy.	Asylum.	Epi.	Epileptic,-s,-sy.	Pri.	Private.
		Est.	Establish,-ed,-ment.	Pris.	Prison,-s,-er,-ers.
				Prob.	Probation.
Bd.	Board,-s.	F. M.	Feeble minded,-ness	Prohi.	Prohibition.
Bdg.	Boarding.	F. V.	Friendly visitor,-s.	Pt.	Point.
Bl.	Blind.			Pub.	Public.
Bldg.	Building, s.	Govt.	Government,-al.	*Re.*	Concerning.
				Ref.	Refuge,reformatory.
		H.	House,-s.	Rel.	Relief.
Ch.	Child, children,-'s.	Ho.	Home,-s.	R. R.	Railroad.
Char.	Charity,-ies,-able.	Hosp.	Hospital,-s.		
Chgd.	Changed.			S.	South,-ern.
Chh.	Church,-'s,-es.	Id.	Idiot,-ic.	San.	Sanatorium.
Co.	County, Company.	Illit.	Illiterate,-cy,	Sch.	School,-s,
Col.	Colony,-ies.	Imb.	Imbecile,-s.	Soc.	Society, social.
Com.	Committee, Commission,-s.	Imp.	Improved,-ment,-s.	Spec.	Special.
		Ind.	Industrial.	St.	State,-s.
Comr.	Commissioner,-s	Ins.	Insane.	Statis.	Statistics,-ical,-ician
Cond.	Condition,-s.	Inst.	Institution,-s,-al.	T. B.	Tuberculosis.
Conf.	Conference,-s.	Invt.	Investigate,-ed-ion-s	Trg.	Training.
Cont.	Control.			Uni.	University,-ies.
Cor.	Correction,-s,-al.	Juv.	Juvenile.		
C. O. S.	Charity Organization Society.			W.	West,-ern.
		Lab.	Labor,-er,-s.	Wk.	Work,-er,-s.
Cri.	Crime,-inal,-s.	Legis.	Legislator,-s-ive-ure	Wkg.	Working.
Ct.	Court,-s.				

Words in SMALL CAPITALS signify COMMITTEES; phrases in *italics* signify *titles of papers;* author's name follows title.

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